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THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

BY

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TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
CONTRIBUTIONS TO EDUCATION, NO. 32

PUBLISHED BY
Teachers College, Columbia University
NEW YORK CITY
1910

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To

MARY E. MACKIE

this book is gratefully dedicated

PREFACE

The purpose of this study is to give a systematic and critical account of the training of teachers in England and Wales. The systems in vogue in Scotland and Ireland differ fundamentally from the English system and consequently fall outside the scope of this work. The study is the outcome of researches made during the past two years in the Departments of Elementary Education and of Educational Administration at Teachers College. To these researches have been added the practical knowledge and experience gained as a lecturer in the Education Department of the University of Manchester—a day training college recognized under the regulations of the English Board of Education. A brief account of the administration of education in England and Wales has been given to serve as a background for the work. In addition, the history of the subject from Elizabethan times has been traced. Since the government is assuming responsibility for the training of secondary school teachers, art teachers, teachers of domestic arts and other subjects, a chapter dealing with these aspects of the problem has been introduced. The main portion of the work is, however, devoted to the description of the training and service of elementary school teachers.

This Contribution is the third of a series on similar topics, the other two of which are Farrington, "The Public Primary School System of France, with special reference to the training of teachers"; and Kandel, "The Training of Elementary Teachers in Germany."

I wish to express my indebtedness to Professor M. E. Sadler for many valuable suggestions on the historical aspects of the subject; to Mr. S. E. Maltby of Manchester University for securing information upon a series of questions submitted to him, difficult of access to students in America; and to the correspondents of the training colleges and the secretaries of the numerous associations of teachers for their never-failing courtesy and kindness in forwarding catalogs and other documents de-

scriptive of the institutions with which they are connected. I wish to express my thanks to Professors Strayer, McMurry, Snedden and Monroe for reading the dissertation in manuscript. To Professor Strayer, I am also indebted for many helpful suggestions.

P. S.

New York, 1910

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INTRODUCTION

This volume fills a gap in the list of books dealing with the administration of English education. No other work covers exactly the same ground or gives so complete an account of the present regulations for the professional training of teachers in England and Wales. For the information of readers not familiar with the existing forms of public control in English education, Dr. Sandiford puts in the forefront of his work a brief survey of the powers and duties of the central and local authorities which inspect and aid different types of school. He then throws his subject into historical perspective by a review of the stages of opinion and of administrative effort which have led up to the existing regulations for the training of teachers for their professional duties. In the following chapters he describes the present state of things in this part of the educational field and, from his own varied personal experience, compares the systems of training in England and America. A book dealing with this subject, though mainly descriptive, must also, if it is to be practically useful and stimulating, be in some measure critical and even controversial. In forecasting the future of the educational system of England and Wales and in discussing various questions of method and organisation upon which opinion is sharply divided, Dr. Sandiford therefore states his own view, but with a candour which will be welcomed by every reader and will be not least respected by those who have formed a different judgment as to the probable course of future policy.

In one of Mr. J. M. Barrie's novels, the vigorous but blunt-minded heroine rocks her arms at a critical point in her history and cries: "It is so easy to make up one's mind." "It is easy to you that has just one mind," retorts Sentimental Tommy, "but if you had as many minds as I have—!" England suffers from the same trouble as Tommy. As to the relation between the State and the individual citizen and between the secular, bureaucratic organisation of the State and the varied religious

traditions of the community, she has more minds than one. It is far from being to her discredit that she sees—or, to put the matter more accurately, feels rather than sees—the difficulty of the problems to which those relationships give rise. But her perception of the weight of argument which may be advanced in support of several possible solutions has greatly embarrassed her in the past, and still embarrasses her, in dealing with the question of national education. For that question, when it has to be dealt with in any thorough-going way, compels us to form a judgment as to the relative rights of the State and of the parents in determining the course of education which children shall receive, and as to the degree in which religious or secular influences should control the spirit of the instruction given in the schools. In determining national policy as to the professional training of teachers for the various types of school which make up the English system of national education, we are confronted with many of these questions in an acute form. Dr. Sandiford's chapters show how contorted has been the growth of the systems of training which have had to thrust their way upwards through this tough tangle of conflicting ideals.

One thing is especially likely to be borne in upon the mind of the reader of these pages. He will note that English educational ideals, and consequently English administrative regulations, for the training of teachers are now passing through a stormy time of change. What is written now may be in some important details obsolete a year hence. For some time change has followed change in bewildering succession. Public opinion has been deeply moved by the discussion of fundamental questions which lie at the base of all educational policy. In hardly any country in the world have administrative changes in the sphere of public education been more rapid than in England during the last eight years. To the student in Great Britain itself, and still more to the foreign observer, these changes have been profoundly interesting and at the same time the cause of serious perplexity. It is no exaggeration to say that there is probably no living man or woman in England or elsewhere who, if taken by surprise, could answer with accuracy all the questions of a searching examination paper dealing, in a comprehensive way, with the present educational conditions and regulations in the different

parts of Great Britain and Ireland. This difficulty gives a measure of the value of the service which Dr. Sandiford has rendered by gathering together, so far as possible, the threads of the situation so far as they concern the training of teachers in England and Wales.

In England, education was until quite lately divided into three virtually separate grades. Those grades were separated from one another by no clear-cut class division, but nevertheless by distinctions which roughly corresponded to three great sections in the community. A long history, almost unbroken from the Middle Ages, lay behind and explained this educational situation. At all times it has been easier than is generally realised for boys (not for girls) of marked promise, if they had the good fortune to meet with a patron or to win a scholarship, to rise from one grade of education to another. But the modern sense of unity in national education, and the conception of a great system of schools and colleges organised throughout under the supervision of the State were slow in making their way into the minds of English people. During the last twenty years this new idea of national education has been working like a ferment in English thought. It has produced an almost revolutionary change in public policy in regard to education. But it is far from having fully realised itself either in administration, or in the distribution of endowments, or in the planning of courses of study, or in the personal relationships between those who teach in different grades of school. Imperfectly realised as yet even in the structure of English education, this idea of unity is still less mature in the sphere of the training of teachers. The older English conception of a teacher's professional training was empiric. It had the merits and the drawbacks of mediæval apprenticeship. Very slowly, and in great part through the influence of Scotland, Germany and the United States, the belief in the possibility of a scientific training for the teacher's work has made its way into English thought. What is now taking place is the gradual adjustment of the methods of science to the maxims of practical experience. But until we see more clearly the function of each type of school (which in turn depends upon still unsettled questions of social organisation) it will be impossible to organise with precision

corresponding types of professional training. We are feeling our way, with much hesitation but on the whole with successful adaptation of existing agencies to new needs, towards a clearer definition of educational ends and thus towards greater precision of effort in the training of teachers. Of this agitated yet promising period of transition Dr. Sandiford gives a picture in this book.

M. E. Sadler.

University of Manchester.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND AND WALES

CHAPTER I

THE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

A. The Central Authorities

Contrary to general belief there is, at the present time, no unified central authority controlling and administering all forms of education in the British Isles. The complexity of the situation is due to the fact that England is "a land of evolution rather than of revolution." No social or political upheavals comparable to the French Revolution have occurred in England. A sentimental regard for old customs and old inheritances, a great reluctance to remove old moss-grown laws from the statute books are characteristic traits of the English. Development has taken place by accretion with subsequent absorption rather than by re-organization of a radical nature. Hence it is not surprising to find that the educational systems of Scotland and Ireland are quite different from that of England and Wales, and that the latter system is far from being homogeneous.

Board of Education: The chief central authority for Education in England and Wales is the Board of Education. It is the youngest of the great executive departments of state, viz:—the Foreign office, the Colonial office, the India office, the War office, the Home office, the Admiralty Board, the Board of Works, the Board of Trade, the Local Government Board, the Board of Agriculture and the Board of Education; and bids fair soon to rival all the others in importance.[1] The Board of Education, like the

[1] The fact that the salary of a Secretary of State, the head of an office, is £5.000 ($25,000), while that of a President of a Board is only £2,000 ($10,000), probably accounts for the fact that during the last Liberal Administration of four years there have been no less than three Ministers

Board of Trade, is a development out of a Committee of Privy Council. It is composed of the President, the five Secretaries of State, the First Commissioner of the Treasury and the Chancellor of the Exchequer,[2] but such are the perversities of English constitutional custom, that it never has met and probably never will. Yet the Board was created with the complete understanding that it would probably never meet. There were numerous precedents; at best it had great potential powers and at worst it could do no harm. "The president alone constitutes a quorum, and he conducts the business of the department with the assistance . . . . . of a secretary who is not himself a member of the Board, but is, like the president, capable of sitting in the House of Commons, and occupies, in short, the position of a Parliamentary under-secretary. In practice, therefore, these boards are legal phantoms that provide imaginary colleagues for a single responsible minister."[3]

The President: The President is appointed by the King and if a person so appointed be a member of the House of Commons, such appointment according to English constitutional custom compels him to vacate his seat and seek re-election in his constituency. The Parliamentary secretary, being appointed by the Board and not by the Crown, need not seek re-election on his appointment. The President has a seat in the Cabinet. He is the person responsible to the country for all the acts of his numerous staff of civil servants. He it is who must answer all questions in Parliament relative to the conduct of his department; must fight the financial battles of Education with the Chancellor of the Exchequer; must be responsible for all government Education Bills presented to Parliament; in short is the elected representative of the people and as such must protect their interests at all times. The Education Department is an excellent example of the effectiveness of expert service controlled by a layman elected by and responsible to the people.[4]

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of Education. Such rapid changes cannot fail to be detrimental to the efficient working of the Department. The remedy is simple—give the President of the Board of Education the salary and prestige of a Secretary of State.

[2] Board of Education Act, 1899, sec. 1.

[3] Lowell, A. L., Government of England, I, 84.

[4] Duke of Devonshire in Hansard: 4 ser. LXX, 353.

History of the Board: The "Phantom" Board was established by the Board of Education Act, 1899,[5] which came into operation on April 1st, 1900. This legislation was the third of a series of consolidating measures. The first of these, in 1839, was the formation of a Committee of Council to "superintend the application of any sums voted by Parliament for the purpose of promoting public education." A grant of £20,000 ($100,000) had been voted annually by Parliament since 1833 for purposes of education. The grant was now raised to £30,000 ($150,000), subsequently to much larger amounts, and was to be administered by the special department created for the purpose.

The second of the measures was the foundation of the Education Department in 1856 which brought the Science and Art Department and the Committee of Council on Education under the same administrative heads.[6] Previous to this time the only official representative of the Committee had been the Lord President of the Council, a member of the House of Lords. By the creation of the office of vice-president to be selected by the premier from among the members of the House of Commons the people were given a more direct control over the grants for education. But the two Departments were never joined; there was a dual control until the actual fusion took place in 1899, although the Committee of Council concerned itself chiefly with elementary education and the training of elementary school teachers, leaving secondary and scientific education under the control of the Science and Art Department.

The Science and Art Department had its origin in the appointment of a select Committee of the House of Commons in 1835 "to inquire into the best means of extending a knowledge of the Arts and of the Principles of Design among the people (especially the manufacturing population) of the country." This committee, reporting in 1836, recommended the establishment of Schools of Design. Accordingly a sum of £1,500 ($7,500) was granted for the purpose, and the President of the Board of Trade elected certain artists and others interested in Art to form the Council of the Government School of Design. The school was opened in 1837. In 1841 schools in the provinces were opened and courses were offered for the training of teachers. A re-organization of

[5] 63 and 64 Vict., c. 33.

[6] Order in Council, February 25, 1856.
Education Department Act, 1856; (19 and 20 Vict. c. 116.)

the School of Design took place in 1842. The grant administered by the Board constantly increased until, in 1852, it had reached the sum of £15,000 ($75,000). In this year the Council was abolished and a Department of Practical Art constituted. In the following year a science division was added and the Department of Science and Art was created. The amalgamation of Science and Art Department and the Committee of Council on Education in 1856 led to a transference of control from the Board of Trade to the Education Department.

The development of the scientific side of the movement progressed very rapidly. An elaborate system of examinations and payment by results was instituted in 1859. This was the forerunner of the wretched payment by result system which was instituted by Robert Lowe in his famous code of 1861. In 1856 the Parliamentary vote was £64,675 ($323,375); in 1894 it had risen to £700,722 ($3,503,610). The qualifications of teachers under the minutes of the Department rose with the grants. From 1859 to 1867 the necessary qualifications to teach were obtained by passing a general examination; in the latter year a pass in the advanced stage, or in honors, was the requisite qualification; the minimum qualification was raised to a first class in the advanced stage or a pass in the honors in 1888. Training colleges for teachers participated in the grant. In 1893, fifty of these institutions sent in 4,054 persons for 8,054 examinations thereby earning for themselves £7,934 ($39,670) of grant. According to sec. 2, (1) of the Board of Education Act of 1899 the duties and powers of the Science and Art Department were transferred to the Board of Education. In this way ended a Department, which had, with a fair measure of success, met the demands for scientific education during the forty-six years of its existence.[7]

The need for a thorough re-organization of the machinery of administration, especially in the field of secondary education, became very acute in the 90's. Consequently, according to English custom, a Royal Commission on Secondary Education was appointed in 1894, with James Bryce as Chairman, " to consider what are the best methods of establishing a well organized system of Secondary Education in England." The commissioners interpreted their task in liberal fashion and their report, brought out in 1895, is most comprehensive both in grasp and in interpretative solution of the problem. A unified, central authority was shown

[7] Calendar, History and General Summary of Regulations of the Department of Science and Art, 1895. (cd. 7601.)
Sadler, Special Reports 1, p. 12.
Balfour, Educational Systems, pp. 13, 254-5, 201-2, 272-3.

to be essential to any scheme of reform, and so they recommended the constitution of a Department of the Executive Government, presided over by a Minister responsible to Parliament, to whom the charge of elementary education was also to be entrusted.[8]

Board of Education Act: Their recommendations were carried out almost literally by the third of the measures—the establishment of the Board of Education in 1899. By the Board of Education Act England obtained a central authority with preponderating powers over education of all grades.[9] The Act is remarkable for its elasticity of powers: there is nothing very specific or detailed in the nine short sections of which it is composed. The chief provisions of the Act are: (1) The creation of a Minister of Education who is responsible to Parliament for all education, primary, secondary, and technical in England and Wales. (2) A Consultative Committee—the first recognition in England of the principle that teachers should have a voice in educational administration; a more formal and less precarious method of expressing professional opinion than deputations and memorials gave; and a permanent institution for taking stock of educational progress without which real efficiency is impossible. (3) A Register of qualified teachers, irrespective of sex or rank, constituted, maintained and controlled by the teachers themselves. (4) The inspection and examination of secondary schools by the Board's officers or by universities and other organizations approved by the Board and the Consultative Committee, except those provided under the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889 which are to remain under the jurisdiction of the Central Welsh Board for Intermediate Education. This again is important for it is the first explicit statement of the fact that the State is responsible for the secondary, no less than for the primary, education of the country. (5) The total absorption of the Education Department (including the Science and Art Department) and the possibility of transfer by the Privy Council of the powers

[8] Bryce: Commission on Secondary Education, 1895. 1, 256-266.

[9] The types of institutions which fall within the Board's jurisdiction are (1) public elementary schools; (2) secondary schools; (3) training colleges for elementary and for secondary school teachers; (4) technical institutions; (5) schools of art; (6) training schools for teachers of domestic subjects.

of the Charity Commissioners of the Board of Agriculture in matters appearing to relate to education. In short, the Act paved the way for the supervision, co-ordination and regulation of the whole system of national education, the universities alone excepted, by one supreme central authority.

Minor powers still retained by the Board are the control of the Victoria and Albert Museum; the Royal Colleges of Science and Art; the Geological Survey and Museum; and the work of the Solar Physics Committee.[10]

Organization of the Board: The organization of the Board of Education is comparatively simple. In the first place it must be clearly understood that the Board concerns itself only with education in England and Wales. The first great division of the Board is between the two countries, England and Wales.[11] Wales has a separate department presided over by a permanent secretary. It also has its own staff of inspectors and examiners. The administration of English education is separated into three main divisions:—the Elementary Education Branch; the Secondary Schools Branch (including the education of pupil-teachers); and the Technological Branch (including continuation schools, both day and evening). The heads of these three main divisions are styled principal assistant secretaries. The three divisions, however, are not water-tight compartments; in the matter of inspection there is much interchange among them.[12] Training colleges for elementary school teachers are included under the general head of elementary education, although there is a Training of Teachers Division provided for in the scheme of organization. Common to both countries are the Special Inquiries and Reports, Legal Branch, the Medical Department, and the Consultative Committee. The number of officials employed

[10] An annual appropriation to carry on the work of these various institutions is made by Parliament in the Budget. The Board of Education is also required to publish an annual report outlining the work accomplished during the preceding twelve months. Report for 1908 is (cd. 4772).

[11] The Welsh Department was created in February, 1907. Except for minor changes such as the substitution of the Welsh History for English History, etc., the regulations, codes and circulars for the two countries are identical. The heads of the Department are directly responsible to the President of the Board.

[12] Circular to Inspectors, 532.

by the Board on June 30, 1909, was 1336 of an established staff and 187 of a non-established staff.[13] Many of these are civil servants and all are out of politics.[14] The highest ranking officials are Inspectors and Examiners. Inspectors are the field men. The examiners at the central office receive the reports of the inspectors, collect statistics and publish the various official regulations. At the head of all, holding a civil service appointment, is Sir Robert L. Morant, the permanent secretary of the Board.

The general work of the Board is to administer the Parliamentary grants for education. Since it is axiomatic, so far as educational administration in England is concerned, that there shall be "no grants without inspection," the Board maintains an annual inspection and exercises a general supervision of the schools, issues regulations determining the condition upon which the grant may be received, and, in general, sees that the money of the people is beneficially and economically expended.

The detailed work of the Board may be said to be divided into (a) central office work and (b) field work which is called inspection.

(a) *Work of Central Office:* From the central office are issued annual reports, codes, regulations, circulars, memoranda, blanks for statistical returns and suggestions. The code for elementary schools is a body of regulations issued annually, and as it receives the sanction of Parliament[15] it has the same force as the laws. It is divided into eight chapters and six schedules. The chapters deal with such topics as: (1) curriculum, syllabus and time table; (2) teaching staff; (3) premises, accommodation and equipment; (4) inspection and reports; (5) exchequer grants in aid and annual grant list; (6) higher elementary schools; (7) attendance and school meetings; and (8) miscel-

[13] School Government Chronicle, 2,022.

[14] Civil servants, with the exception of Army and Navy officers, cannot sit in Parliament. They usually abstain from taking an active part in politics, although they possess the franchise. On contesting a Parliamentary Constituency they resign their positions. 4 Anne c. 8; 6 Anne c. 7; 25, 26.

[15] Section 97, Elementary Education Act, 1870. "No such minute of the Education Department shall be deemed to be in force until it has lain, for not less than one month, on the table of both Houses of Parliament."

laneous regulations. The schedules give: (1) information as to teachers; (2) the regulations to be observed in the employment of teachers undergoing preliminary education; (3) the regulations for the teaching of special subjects such as domestic subjects, dairy work and gardening; (4) regulations as to school records and registration; (5) regulations as to the payment of the Fee Grant; and (6) the regulations as to certificates of proficiency.

The chief regulations of the Board, also issued annually but not codified, are the regulations for technical schools, schools of art, and other forms of provision of further education; for secondary schools; for the preliminary education of elementary school teachers; for the training of teachers for elementary schools; and for the training of teachers for secondary schools.[16] Building regulations are issued as often as the exigencies of the situation demand.

Circulars are short, interpretative, or explanatory documents having reference to the codes of regulations. They are numbered consecutively and are issued irregularly—at such times as the Board deems necessary. Some of the recent circulars have been forecasts of regulations to come into force in the near future.

The statistics of the Board of Education are absolutely reliable. This is due to the fact that "all returns called for by the Board or Parliament must be duly made."[17] The statistics of public education for a triennial period are published annually. They are divided into two parts (for England and Wales) for the first time in the 1906-7-8 publication. Each country divides its statistics into two sections, one for financial, the other for educational statistics. These publications are independent of the various annual reports which the Acts of 1870, 1893, 1898 and 1899, demand shall be laid before Parliament.

The "Suggestions for the consideration of Teachers, and others concerned in the work of Public Elementary Schools,"

[16] These various regulations are published annually in collected form by the National Union of Teachers and by the proprietors of the School Government Chronicle. The former publication is known as "the Red Code" and is an invaluable source of information on the statutory regulation of English education.

[17] Elementary school code, 1909, section 47.

were first issued in 1905. They were part of the fixed scheme of the permanent secretary of the Board for the improvement of the curriculum of the elementary school. These suggestions, while open to objection on the grounds of retention of the principle of formal discipline and of other evidences of a faulty psychology, are illustrative of the newer spirit which is beginning to stir English education. A revised edition was published in the fall of 1909. This is a considerable improvement over the original one although the doctrine of formal discipline is still to the fore. Especially valuable are the new temperance syllabus, the syllabus of physical exercises, and the suggestions for the teaching of needlework. Suggestions on rural education, by T. S. Dymond, H. M. I., together with specimen courses of nature study, gardening and rural economy were published in 1908 by the Board.

(b) *Inspection:* One of the most difficult things for an American educator to understand is the English system of inspection which constitutes the field work of the Board. Inspection, like many other phases of English Education, is somewhat ancient. In 1700 we find on the minutes of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (S. P. C. K.) the following: "Resolved that the Rev. Mr. Coghan be the Inspector of all the Charity Schools in and about London and Westminster."[18] A noteworthy feature of the work of the Kildare Place Society (1811-1831) was the system of inspection of schools it inaugurated (see chap. II). In the early days of the government grants to education we find that the Committee of Council on Education insisted vigorously upon its right to inspect all schools and training colleges which received financial assistance from the Government. After the introduction of payment by results by Lowe's code of 1861 inspection began to assume a new character. Instead of a more or less sympathetic supervision, inspection became little more than a formal and critical examination of the individual pupils; the deficiencies rather than the excellencies of teaching were eagerly sought for. There is no doubt that the tradition of the days of payment-by-results still lingers, that many inspectors do not consider it their duty to instruct and supervise the teaching staff under their charge; but it is also true that a newer and better conception of the function of inspection

[18] Allen and Maclure: S. P. C. K. 1698-1898, p. 143.

is rapidly arising. With the introduction, since 1882, of professionally trained inspectors to replace those who had merely high-academic qualifications, inspection is more and more assuming the rôle of supervision. The old name is retained but the meaning now to be attached to it is governmental supervision over an area which is wider than that of the local area. With respect to this the government states:

"Now it is plain that, under modern conditions, the Central Authority and the Local Authority must have different functions to fulfil in respect of the supervision of public education, and that friction and waste of energy cannot but ensue if this is not remembered, and if the respective spheres of each are not duly apportioned and recognized. It is, therefore, imperative to consider carefully on what principle this apportionment may be best arranged.

It is obvious on the one hand that each local authority has to arrange and to supervise, usually through the agency of one official, the work of *all* the many different grades of school and forms of education that are needed in its area. It is a matter of paramount importance to secure that these are so arranged as to work organically and harmoniously together, each and all, in the general scheme of education in the area. It is thus the local authority's special duty to consider the supervision and provision of its various grades of education *taken together,* and *in their relation to one another,* within the given area. This is clearly in the main a local problem; it is indeed *the* local problem.

On the other hand it is the special province of the central authority not merely to test the efficiency of all schools in respect of which it distributes Parliamentary grants, but also and in particular to organize efficient sources of educational information and to disseminate in convenient fashion results, criticism, and suggestions, derived from continuously recorded observation of educational experiments and of the daily work of the various kinds of schools and teachers. Such observations, to be authoritative, must in the case of each kind of school be *made over a wide area.*"[19]

The "wide area" for the inspector is made by dividing up the country longitudinally (in accordance with the subdivisions of the central office) into three sections: one for the public elementary schools; a second for technical schools and others (day and evening) concerned with further education; the third for secondary schools and pupil-teacher centers. Each inspector is

[19] Circular to Inspectors, 532; Companion to Code, 1908, 216.

assigned to one specific division and is expected to devote the whole of his time and energies to the work of his particular section. The country is divided longitudinally by the Board (except for the inspection of training colleges for teachers) into nine divisions. These nine divisions, grouped into three greater divisions to facilitate the apportionment of work among the three assistant secretaries in each of the three administrative branches of the office, with counties comprised in each, are as follows:

Northern Group	North: Cumberland, Northumberland, Westmoreland and Durham.
	Northwest: Lancashire and Cheshire.
	Northeast: The three Ridings of Yorkshire.
Midland Group	West Central: Salop, Staffs, Hereford, Worcester, Warwick, Gloucester, Oxon, Berkshire.
	East Central: Derby, Notts, Leicester, Rutland, Northampton, Hunts, Bucks, Herts.
	East: Lincoln, Cambridge, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex.
Southern Group	Southwest: Devon, Somerset, Wilts, Cornwall, Dorset.
	Southeast: Hants, Surrey, Sussex, Kent.
	Metropolitan: Middlesex, London.

For the purpose of inspection of the training colleges for teachers, the nine geographical divisions are specifically grouped into five groups, each under an inspector. They are as follows:

I.	N., N. E., and N. W	17 colleges.
II.	W. C	13 colleges.
III.	E. C. and E	8 colleges.
IV.	S. E. and S. W	12 colleges.
V.	Metropolitan	12 colleges.

The inspectors in charge of these divisions only inspect the ordinary day and residential colleges within the districts. The more specialized training colleges for secondary school teachers, and those which are constituent parts of teaching universities, are under the charge of Mr. P. A. Barnett, the chief inspector of the Board of Education for the training teachers. The training colleges which are constituent parts of the universities are as follows:

Birmingham, M and W;[20] Bristol, M and W; Cambridge, M; Leeds, M and W; Liverpool, M and W; London, King's College,

[20] M=Colleges for Men. W=Colleges for Women.

M; London, Southampton Row, M and W; Manchester, M and W; Newcastle-on-Tyne, M and W; Oxford, M; Sheffield, M and W. (Total 11.)

The inspectorial areas in Wales are not so clearly differentiated as those of England. The inspectors for secondary schools have charge of technical schools also. The Chief Inspector for Wales inspects all the training colleges in Wales, viz: Aberystwith, Day, M and W; Bangor, Day, M and W; Bangor, "Normal," M; Bangor, "North Wales," W; Cardiff, Day, M and W; Carmarthen, M; and Swansea, W. (Total 7.)

In addition to the inspectors enumerated above there is a staff of women inspectors and a number of inspectors of special subjects. (1) The medical officers of the Board are responsible for the inspection of special schools for the blind, deaf, epileptic or defective children. (2) There are inspectors of schools of art—the divisions being the same as those for training colleges. A distinction, however, is made between art classes as such, and technical classes, where art is taught as a more or less subsidiary subject. The latter are under the control of the inspectors of technical schools, although the inspectors of the schools of art must give them such assistance as may be necessary. (3) Training schools for teachers of domestic subjects are inspected by women inspectors, who also inspect special classes for adults in domestic subjects; centers and classes in domestic subjects for elementary school children; technical classes in those subjects; and domestic subjects in Poor Law schools. (4) Drawing and handicrafts are inspected by district inspectors, but assistance is rendered by a special inspectorial staff, who, like the district inspectors themselves, work under the direction of the divisional inspectors. (5) Rural education and agriculture is under the charge of two special inspectors. (6) Music is under the direction of one inspector who gives general oversight to it wherever taught. His chief work lies in the annual inspection of music in the training colleges. (7) Women inspectors assist in the inspection of all training colleges for women, and of mixed colleges, especially with regard to the domestic arrangements and the teaching of domestic subjects.

Inspectors are divided into five classes, viz: chief inspectors, divisional inspectors, district inspectors, junior inspectors, and sub-inspectors. The office of inspector is non-competitive. Pro-

motion is according to length of service and merit. As a class the inspectors are excellent men; their greatest failing is a lack of knowledge of pedagogy, both in its theoretical and practical aspects. The days of mild contempt for the subject are rapidly passing. Many of those more recently appointed have had excellent professional training.

The powers of an inspector are extremely wide. He may visit an elementary school in his district at any time and as frequently (or infrequently) as he likes. He must approve the syllabus of instruction and he may require brief notes of lessons to be produced, or such other evidences as will show that the lessons have been duly prepared. No annual Parliamentary grant is paid on behalf of the school unless the report of the inspector is satisfactory. His report, after passing through the hands of his chief and those of the examiners at the central office, is returned to the school and permanent record of it is made in the log book.[21] Inspectorial power is not so great in secondary and technical as in elementary schools. Still, the inspector must approve the curriculum and certify that the instruction is satisfactory from a hygienic point of view. The Board of Education, as successors of the Charity Commissioners[22] under the Act of 1899, are authorized to examine and inquire by their Inspectors into the educational charities in England and Wales. It is not yet known whether these powers are equivalent to the powers of inspection enjoyed by the Board in the case of secondary schools on the grant list, the matter never having been the subject of a judicial decision.[23] The inspection of Training Colleges is treated in a later chapter.

Special Inquiries: The Department of Special Inquiries and Reports is one of the two educational intelligence bureaus of the English Board,—the other being the Consultative Committee. The work of the former is unlimited in its scope; that of the latter is restricted to questions proposed by the Board, and which are naturally confined to educational problems of the British Isles. The Department of Special Inquiries and Reports was created in 1895. Its first director was Dr. Michael E. Sadler. The Sadler Special Reports are world famous, and rightly so,

[21] Code of regulations for elementary schools, section 3, 21, 22, 23 and 50.

[22] The Charitable Trusts Act, 1853, 16 and 17, Vict. c. 137-9.

[23] The President of the Board of Education, December 14, 1908.

for since the time of Barnard's American Journal of Education no treatment of educational problems has been quite so comprehensive or reliable. Sadler resigned in 1903 as a protest against the restriction of the usefulness of the department by the other officers of the Board of Education.[24] At the time of resignation, Sadler had completed eleven volumes and was far into the preparation of other volumes. His successor, Dr. H. F. Heath, has completed twelve more (Numbers 12-23), the series as a whole giving an excellent survey of education in all parts of the world.

Consultative Committee: The Consultative Committee was established, according to the powers granted by section 4 of the Board of Education Act 1899, by order in Council of August 7, 1900. The Committee consisted of 18 members (subsequently raised to 21 in 1904) of whom two-thirds were representatives of the universities and other bodies interested in education. At the present time the Committee is excellently constituted, having members representative of elementary, secondary, technical and university education, of labor, of the interests of women, and of organizations of teachers, but there is no statutory guarantee that such an excellent balance of interests will be preserved. The duties of the Committee, like those of its prototype— the *Comitè Consultatif* in France—are to report and advise upon matters submitted to it by the Board. The members serve for six years. Six form a quorum at a meeting. All vacancies are filled by the President of the Board of Education. The Committee were also empowered by section 4 (a) of the Act of 1899 to frame regulations for a register of teachers, but the section has since been repealed.[25] This Committee, in spite of certain inherent defects in constitution, is the chief of the dynamic forces behind the present educational reform movement in England, providing as it does the scientific direction necessary to bring reform to practical fruition. The four chief reports of the Committee are (1) on higher elementary schools; (2) upon the school attendance of children below the age of five; (3) upon the question of devolu-

[24] Papers on the Resignation of Director of Special Inquiries and Reports, May 18, 1903.

[25] Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1909, sec. 16, (1) 7Edw. 7, c. 43.

tion by county education authorities; and (4) upon attendance, compulsory or otherwise, at continuation schools.

Minor Central Authorities: Up to the present we have been considering the Board of Education which is the chief authority for England and Wales only. The work of consolidation has been slow and is not yet completed. We must now proceed further and consider the other minor central authorities in England and Wales together with those for Scotland and Ireland,[26] for all are interrelated in so far as they are under the financial control of the same Parliament. The subsidiary central authorities for England and Wales are the Home Office, the Local Government Board, the Board of Agriculture, the War Office, the Admiralty and the Charity Commissioners. The central authority for Scotland is the Scotch Education Department. Ireland has a Board of Commissioners of National Education for its elementary, and two authorities, the Intermediate Education Board and the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, for its secondary education.

Reformatory and industrial schools, so far as they are recognized by government, together with the children who are employed in mills and factories, are still under the control of the Home Secretary.

Reformatory schools are for actual, industrial schools for potential delinquents. In both types of school, industrial training is given and the children are lodged, clothed, and fed, as well as taught. Day industrial schools, where children receive industrial training, elementary education and one or more meals a day, but no lodgings, may also be provided. The reformatory and industrial schools are subject to the provisions of the Children's Act, 1908 (8 Edw. 7 c. 67) and not to the various elementary education Acts from 1870-1908.

Poor Law Schools are under the jurisdiction of the Local Government Board. In 1904, however, a step to further the consolidation of the Poor Law Schools under the Board of Education was taken. This was the transference of the inspection of such schools from the Local Government Board to the Board

[26] An account of the educational administration of Scotland and Ireland is beyond the scope of this work. Since, however, the whole of the education of the United Kingdom is controlled by the same body, viz., Parliament, it has been thought desirable to insert a brief account in order to round off the subject.

of Education.[27] In 1909 the transfer was not complete. Besides the sixty-six schools conducted by Boards of Guardians and Managers of Poor Law school districts whose inspection was transferred, there were other ninety schools providing elementary education for Poor Law children certified by the Local Government Board under the Act of 1862. Of the latter, sixty-four only were under the inspection of the Board of Education, five of the Home Office as industrial schools, and one of the Admiralty. The Minister of Education has promised to take over the remaining twenty schools.[28]

The association of Local Government Board with the education of pauper children is of historical origin. Previous to 1871, when the Local Government Board was created (34 and 35 Vict. c. 70) to take over the functions of the Poor Law Board and the supervision of the laws relating to public health and local government, the education of pauper children was entirely in the hands of the Poor Law Board (10 and 11 Vict. c. 109) and its forerunner the Poor Law Commission (4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 76). That the work was shockingly neglected there is not the slightest reason to doubt, although an ill-advised and unsuccessful attempt to train schoolmasters for Poor Law Schools was made by the establishment of a Government Training School, Kneller Hall at Hounslow, in 1850. Since 1871 the management of Poor Law Schools has improved tremendously, although it came to be recognized that the segregation of pauper children in special schools was not a very desirable thing.[29]

The Board of Agriculture may inspect and finance any school, not elementary, which gives instruction connected with agriculture or forestry. Such powers over education according to section 2 (2) of the Board of Education Act of 1899 may be taken over by the Board of Education. A working arrangement between the Board of Education and the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries with respect to agricultural education was made in 1909. According to this agreement agricultural instruction of an advanced (i. e. collegiate) nature will remain under the direction of the Board of Agriculture; other forms of agricultural in-

[27] This was in reality a return to the *status quo*, for between 1856 and 1863 the Education Department had enjoyed the right of inspection of Poor Law Schools.

[28] School Government Chronicle: 2,022.

[29] See Balfour: Educational Systems, p. 63-69. Chance: Children under the Poor Law, p. 2-5. Newcastle Commission Report, 1861, I. 352-385. Tufnell: Reports on the Training of Pauper Children, 1841 and 1852.

struction under the Board of Education. To prevent overlapping and duplication of work, a Rural Education Conference has been constituted. It consists "of members nominated by the County Councils Association, the Agricultural Society of England, the Agricultural Education Association and other leading agricultural organizations, together with six additional members to be nominated by the Presidents of the two Boards so as to provide for the inclusion (a) of persons specially competent to deal with educational problems so far as the rural districts are concerned, and (b) of representatives of districts not adequately covered by existing agricultural organizations."[30] In addition an Inter-departmental Committee consisting of the responsible officers of the two Boards has been constituted. This committee meets from time to time, as often as is necessary. Further, T. S. Dymond, one of the inspectors of the Board for agricultural education, published an official Suggestion on Rural Education of which mention was made earlier in the chapter.

Army schools for soldiers and for their children fall within the jurisdiction of the War Office. Since 1898, a field-officer, known as the director of Army schools, has had general direction and supervision of these schools.[31]

The Admiralty is the central authority for a complex system of navy schools giving elementary education, not only to children of mariners and persons in Admiralty employment, but also to boys in training and in sea-going ships, and to marines and blue jackets in service either afloat or ashore. The Chaplain of the Fleet is the inspector for all naval schools. His staff of teachers have all been trained.

Previous to the passing of the Board of Education Act, the Charity Commissioners had extensive powers over secondary education in England and Wales. These powers were conferred by two principal sets of Acts of Parliament, namely: (a) The Charitable Trusts Acts 1853 to 1891; and (b) the Endowed Schools Acts 1869 to 1874. The powers under the Charitable Trusts Acts are general and include: (1) power to inquire into the administration of endowments; (2) power to compel the production of accounts and information; (3) power to appoint

[30] Memorandum of arrangements between Boards of Education and Agriculture, 1909.

[31] Balfour: Educational Systems, 70–74.

and remove trustees and other officers; (4) power to vest real and personal estate, and otherwise to safeguard the property of the endowments; (5) power to control legal proceedings taken on behalf of the endowments, and (6) power to make schemes for the endowments, so as to adapt their administration to meet occurring changes, but subject to the rule of *cy près*.[32] The powers under the Endowed School Act are quite specific and are directed to the framing of schemes for the regulation of various endowments. The method of framing a scheme is exceedingly cumbersome and is seldom completed in less time than a year.[33]

The Charity Commissioners are six in number, four appointed under the Charitable Trust Act 1853 (16 and 17 Vict. c. 137) and two under the Endowed Schools Acts, 1874 (37 and 38 Victs. c. 87) which transferred to the Charity Commissioners all the powers previously vested in the Endowed Schools Commissioners.[34] One of the commissioners is unpaid and holds a seat in the House of Commons.

The Act of 1899 made it lawful for the Privy Council to transfer all the powers of the Charity Commissioners, which related to the endowments held, or parts of endowments determined by them to be held, solely for educational purposes, to the Board of Education. By successive orders of 1900, 1901 and 1902 the whole of these powers have been transferred. In this way a more unified central authority, which paved the way for the complete re-organization by the Act of 1902, was constituted.

Central Authority for Scotland: The central authority for Scotland is the Scotch Education Department, at whose head is the Secretary for Scotland. This Department was established as a Committee of the Privy Council in 1872.[35] All responsibility remained with the president of the Council, an English minister, until 1885, when a Secretary for Scotland was appointed (48 and 49 Vict. c. 61) and placed at the head of the Department. The Secretary, in addition, discharges duties for Scotland corresponding to those of the Home office and Local Government Board for England. His salary is £2,000 ($10,000) a year.

[32] Bryce: Secondary Education Commission, I, p. 20.

[33] For the details of the procedure see Bryce: Secondary Education Commission, I, pp. 21–23.

[34] These were created by the Endowed Schools Act, 1869 (32 and 33 Vict. c. 56).

[35] Section 1 of Education (Scotland) Act 1872 (35 and 36 Vict. c. 62).

Central Authorities for Ireland: Irish education is controlled by three central authorities—the Board of Commissioners of National Education for elementary education; the Intermediate Education Board for secondary education; and the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for technical education and the scientific aspects of secondary education.

The object of the Board of Commissioners is to carry on a scheme of elementary education which affords *combined* literary and moral, and *separate* religious instruction to children of all persuasions. Accordingly, the commissioners have drawn up an elaborate set of regulations which divide up the school-day into the religious and secular periods, and which permit the priests or authorized laity of the various denominations to give religious instruction to those children belonging to their particular denomination during the time set apart for the teaching of religion.[36]

The Board of Commissioners was founded in 1831. In 1845 the Board was incorporated by Royal Charter and power was given to the Commissioners to hold land, to erect and support schools, and to provide generally for the education of the poor of Ireland out of funds furnished by Parliament. A new charter was granted to the Board in 1861. This charter increased the number of commissioners to twenty, of whom ten were to be Roman Catholics and ten Protestants. Changes can be introduced by the commissioners without an Act of Parliament. They must, however, carry out their operations according to the Regulations framed in accordance with the series of Acts of Parliament, 1875 to 1909. In practice, therefore, the commissioners simply frame rules to carry out the wishes of the government. The power of appointment and removal of the commissioners is in the hands of the Lord Lieutenant for Ireland. The chief executive is a resident commissioner who is a salaried officer. The other commissioners are unpaid and are of various religious persuasions. Considerable dissatisfaction is manifested with the working of the Irish scheme. The report of F. H. Dale, one of His Majesty's inspectors, published in 1904, showed the existence of many deficiencies, economic and otherwise.[37]

[36] Sadler: Special reports, I, 211–257.

[37] See Sadler: Special Reports, I, 211–257, 733.

U. S. Commission Ex-Reports, 1904, 822.

Powis: Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry into Primary Education, Ireland, 8 vols., 1870.

The secondary education of Ireland is in rather a chaotic state. It is largely controlled by the Intermediate Education Board (Intermediate Education Ireland) Act, 1878, (41 and 42 Vict. c. 66) which conducts an extensive series of public examinations and distributes grants to the schools according to the successes of the pupils. The income of the Board is made up of the interest on a government fund of £1,000,000 ($5,000,000) placed at the disposal of the Board, which yielded in 1903 interest amounting to £27,000 ($137,000), and a sum from the Irish share of the customs and excise duties, which averages about £50,000 ($250,000) annually. A system of inspection was inaugurated in 1908. Technical instruction is in the hands of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland (62 and 63 Vict. c. 50). This department, so far as Ireland is concerned, has replaced the Science and Art Department. Under this Act of 1899, a Council of Agriculture, an Agricultural Board, a Board of Technical Instruction, and a co-ordinating Consultative Committee have been created. The Board of Technical Instruction expends £55,000 ($165,000) annually, trains teachers, and endeavors to co-ordinate the various phases of educational activities. There is, however, considerable overlapping between the work of the Intermediate Educational Board and that of the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction.

B. The Local Authorities

For the purpose of local government England and Wales are divided into Administrative Counties, County Boroughs, Municipal Boroughs and Urban Districts. Municipal boroughs are cities ranging from 10,000 to 50,000 population and were created by the Municipal Corporations Act of 1882 to manage the administrative and financial business of the municipal areas. County boroughs are cities having not less than 50,000 inhabitants.[38] An administrative county is identical with a geographical county (or its subdivision, as in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire) except for the exclusion of the small area of the county borough.[39] Administrative counties and county boroughs were created by the Local

[38] A few ancient boroughs have less than this number.

[39] There are only 52 geographical counties—40 in England and 12 in Wales. In 1908 there were 62 administrative counties.

Government Act of 1888 (51 and 52 Vict. c. 41). Urban districts are subdivisions of the area of the administrative county. They were created in 1894 by the Local Government Act (56 and 57 Vict. c. 73).[40]

Local Areas: These four existing administrative divisions, by the Education Act of 1902,[41] were made into local areas for the purpose of educational administration. A distinction, however, is drawn between administrative counties and county boroughs on the one hand, and municipal boroughs and urban districts on the other, with respect to the extent of their powers over educational affairs. The administrative county and county boroughs are co-equal with respect to the administration of all types of education—elementary, technical, secondary and higher. Urban districts, providing they have a population of not less than 20,000, and municipal boroughs of not less than 10,000 inhabitants, are autonomous with respect to the administration of elementary education within their areas; the provision of other types of education remaining with the larger area—the administrative county.[42]

The councils of these areas are the local education authorities.[43] No new body was constituted for the special purposes of education, but educational interests were given to a body already possessing great powers over the various forms of local administration. The correlation of all the local activities is thus made possible. In 1908 the number of authorities was 328, distributed as follows:

62 Councils of administrative counties.
74 Councils of county boroughs.
137 Councils of autonomous municipal boroughs.
54 Councils of autonomous urban districts.
1 Council for the Isles of Scilly.

328

[40] The fifth local government area—the Parish—plays no part in education, except a minor one in the administration of certain educational charities and in the appointment of managers.

[41] 2 Edw. VII., c. 42.

[42] A few boroughs like Stafford and Warwick have surrendered their autonomies and are now merged into the county authorities. Education Act, 1902, sec. 20b.

[43] Education Act, 1902, sec. 1.

The Council: The Council is elected by a direct vote of the people. This provides for public control, but as education is only one of the many issues at elections, it is usually subordinated and sometimes it is lost sight of altogether. The councils replaced the boards of education which were *ad hoc* authorities created by the Elementary Education Act of 1870. The loss of popular interest in education has been attributed by the supporters of the *ad hoc* principle to the great extent of the educational area (true only of the administrative county) and to the constitution of the membership of the council. The wider area has created a serious amount of "red tape," while the membership of the council, in a large measure, is recruited from people whose primary interest is certainly not education. The remedy for the former evil is the creation of district committees[44] to utilize the patriotism of the local members; the remedy for the latter—the fuller recognition of the co-opted members.[45]

Education Committee: The multifarious duties of the council would prevent due attention being paid to educational matters, so section 17 of the 1902 Act makes provision for the establishment of an education committee or committees of the council. To this committee[46] may be entrusted all the powers of the council under the Act except the power of raising a rate, or borrowing money. The majority of the committee are to be appointed and, except in counties, must be members of the council; the remainder may be made up of representatives of local organizations and of persons of experience in education. Women must be included in the committee. Teachers and education officials may be members of the committee. The Board of Education must approve the scheme and no scheme is approved which does not provide for the co-ordination of all types of education within the area. The usual proportion of the committee are two-thirds from the council, one-third co-opted, two or three of whom are women. Membership of the committee runs from fifteen to fifty, the median being about twenty-five.

[44] Act of 1902, sec. 17 (5).

[45] Act of 1902, sec. 17 (3).

[46] Since the education committee is a statutory committee it cannot be treated in the same way as an ordinary committee of the council, e.g., as the gas or the tramways committee.

Since the legislative and executive functions of education committees are not clearly differentiated, it is customary to distribute the work among a number of sub-committees. The greater the complexity of the system, the more numerous are the sub-committees. In London there are eleven; viz.—general purposes, books and apparatus, buildings and attendance, day schools, endowments, higher education, non-provided schools, survey, polytechnic and evening schools, special schools, teaching staff, and underfed children's sub-committees. A twelfth special sub-committee on medical treatment of children attending public elementary schools was formed in 1907. A more usual number for counties and county boroughs is six. These are for higher education, elementary education, evening schools, school management, school attendance and finance. In all cases the sub-committees report to the general committee. Matters are expedited usually by the distribution of printed agenda among the members.

Managers: The Act of 1902 also provided a number of managers. Managers, according to section 3 of the Elementary Education Act 1870, are persons who have the management of any elementary school, whether the legal interest in the schoolhouse is or is not vested in them. The managers have played a most important, yet often unknown, part in the work of educational administration. They are the people who have bridged over the gap between the teacher and the central unknown office and have made him feel that his work was of very real value to the nation. In a word they give the human touch to the "red tape" of bureaucracy. They are now divided into two main classes: (1) the managers of provided or council schools, the successors of the old board schools; and (2) the managers of non-provided schools, the successors of the old voluntary schools. The powers and manner of appointment of managers to the provided or council schools differ according as they are appointed by the County Council or by the borough (whether county or non-county) and urban districts. The Act makes it obligatory on the council of the county to appoint four managers, to whom two must be added by the minor local authority.[47] In the case of boroughs and

[47] A minor local authority is the body responsible for the local government of a small area such as district or parish. In administrative counties it is generally the parish council that has the power to nominate the two managers of the council school and the single manager of the voluntary school within that parish.

urban districts the area is so small that it is optional with the councils whether to have managers or not. If they have them the number is not fixed by statute, nor are the duties defined except by the council staff. Managers cannot be removed when once appointed so it is customary to appoint them for a limited time only.

The method of appointment of managers to the non-provided or voluntary schools has caused much friction between the two great religious factions of England—the non-conformists and the church people. This is due to the fact that of the normal number of six managers, four styled foundation managers are appointed under the trust deeds or under a special order of the Board.[48] The other two are appointed by local education authorities. If the authority is a county council, then the council appoints one and the minor local authority the other, but if the authority is the council of a borough or urban district, both are appointed by the body. Thus the balance of power is always with the religious denomination[49] although the school enjoys the same privileges with respect to government grants and support by local rates as does the provided or council school. Moreover, the powers of the voluntary school managers are far greater than those of council schools.

It will thus be seen that the Act of 1902 provides for diverse forms of devolution or delegation of powers of the local authority to various committees, some of which are strictly local in character. Although up to the present, no county council acting as local authority has utilized the powers granted under section 17 (5) by means of which separate education authorities are created for separate parts of its area, yet many of them have delegated certain wide powers to the bodies of managers in their respective districts. In this way local interest in education has been maintained, local advice has been given to the central authority, and travelling expenses of members of the central staff and county committee have been minimized.[50] On the other hand it has been

[48] Sec. 11, Education Act, 1902.

[49] The managers control the religious exercises of the school and to a great extent the religious observances of the teachers employed by them.

[50] Report of the consultative committee upon the question of devolution by county education authorities (cd. 3952) 1908, pp. 5–11. In this report the arguments *pro* and *con* on the question of devolution are admirably set forth.

maintained that such devolution of powers is attended by a loss of educational and administrative efficiency. The problem has not yet been settled; the economies attendant upon centralized administration and the life and vigor given by conserved local interest must be adjusted so as to give the greatest possible total efficiency. In the English scheme are potentialities greater than those of any other country of the world.

Local Authority; Powers and Duties: The general duties of the local authorities may be summed up as follows: to provide the machinery for the various forms of education, to receive and disburse the government grants for schools, and to levy local taxes to make up the excess cost of education over the grants received from the government. The powers of the local authority are extremely wide; government fixes the minimum standards and sees that they are reached by means of its system of inspection, but leaves the local authority possessed of a higher degree of independence. Consequently, we find in English education, as in English life in general, that phenomenon best expressed by the biological term variability.[51]

The detailed powers and duties are too many to enumerate. In general they comprise power to provide (1) for elementary education of all children up to sixteen years of age; (2) for higher education, if such powers be conferred upon them by the Act of 1902; (3) for the training of teachers; (4) for the awarding of scholarships to students in schools, colleges or universities; (5) for the medical inspection of school children; (6) for the feeding of necessitous school children either with or without the co-operation of societies; and (7) for the provision of playgrounds where organized games may be played during school hours.[52]

The general statement that it is the duty of the local authorities to provide the machinery for the various forms of education im-

[51] The uniformity of American education, in spite of great expanse of territory and widely diverse conditions, is a feature noticed by all English visitors to these shores. This uniformity is probably due to the vigor of the various educational associations. (See Miss Burstall's Impressions of American Education in 1908.)

[52] Education Act, 1902. Part IV.
Education Act, 1907.
Consultative Committee's Report on attendance: I, 117–118.
Elementary School Code, Art. 44.

plies that a great number of functions must be exercised. The local authority, for example, must see that suitable buildings adequately furnished are provided, that free elementary education is provided for all children who desire it; that pupils intending to follow the teaching profession are properly educated; that a properly qualified school staff is provided; that by-laws for the compulsory attendance of children at school are framed and exercised; that the various forms of education are co-ordinated; that constant improvement in schools, with respect to equipment, to qualifications of staff and to the course of study, is made; and that the statistical returns to the Board of Education are adequate and accurate. The local authority may also introduce special and industrial subjects into curriculum; may establish employment registries; may co-operate with parents and employers in finding suitable employment for the scholars of leaving age; may provide conveyances for children living great distances from school; may provide country schools for town children; may provide special schools for truants, defective and incorrigibles; and, in a host of other ways, provide for the material and moral welfare of the children under its care.

School Attendance: With respect to school attendance in England the government states that children must attend school from the age of 5 to 14, exceptions being made in certain cases for children over twelve,[53] but the by-laws for school attendance are made by the local authority and are only operative in the area over which the local authority has jurisdidction. Since government grants are distributed in part on the basis of average attendance we find that the attendance at school of English children is usually excellent. It is no uncommon thing to find a school which has had an average attendance of 96 per cent during a period of six years. Such regularity as this implies an excellent organization of the school attendance officers. The local area is usually divided into school attendance districts over which is placed a school attendance officer. In London there are 300 such districts; in Manchester, 104. Each officer is responsible for the attendance of children in his district. A duplicate set of registers is supplied to him weekly and the case of any child making habitually less

[53] Children under five but over three are also admitted but this is optional with the local authority.

than ten attendances is investigated. In addition, school censuses are taken in some areas, and special truant officers to pick up children wandering in streets during school hours and to trace families who have removed are also appointed. In spite of the excellence of the results, the employment of the "card" system would reduce enormously the mechanical labors of the bookkeeping.

Supervision: The terms superintendent and supervisor are unknown in England. Instead of superintendent the chief executive officer of the education committee is usually designated director, chief secretary, or organizing secretary. The supervisor and special supervisor are replaced by the local inspector and the "organizer" of special subjects. Much of the work of the local inspection, and indeed of governmental inspection as well, partakes of the nature of supervision. In some cases, however, the tradition of inspection is so strong, that supervision as it is understood in America finds no place at all. The introduction of the word supervisor would be of incalculable benefit to English elementary education at the present time. Inspectors and organizers are still few in number although rapidly on the increase. Manchester has four local inspectors, Sheffield only three. London has forty-one inspectors and twenty-eight organizers for the twelve districts into which the county of London is divided. Somerset, largely an agricultural county, has only two inspectors, one of whom is termed the organizing inspector of domestic science.

The above figures will indicate at once to those familiar with supervision as practised in America, that England is only at the beginning of her task. The prevention of waste of energy and the re-direction of the misguided efforts of the teachers into more profitable channels will necessitate the creation of a supervisory force the size of which can as yet be only roughly approximated. The problem is a local one and must be solved by the individual local authorities. London has attacked the problem in earnest and the results justify the effort. Other local authorities would do well to follow the example of London.

In conclusion it may be stated that the re-organization of English education, both central and local, is progressing with extreme rapidity. Since 1900 there has been practically one unified central authority, the Board of Education, responsible for the central

administration of all types of education. Since 1902 the local authorities have also been charged with the superintendence of all forms of education within their own particular area. The effect of the latter was greatly to increase the amount of "red tape," but in this respect the system has now sunk to a normal level. Care has been taken to preserve local interests and local independence wherever possible, and while this adds to the difficulties of administration (and incidentally to the difficulties of explanation of the system) it undoubtedly adds to the efficiency of the system as a whole.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY OF THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Prior to 1839: The part played by England in the training of teachers can by no stretch of imagination be considered brilliant. During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries when Germany was establishing on firm foundation a national system of teacher-training, England was practically inactive. The nineteenth century opened with philanthropic attempts to train monitors in the cheapest possible fashion, but these proved dismal failures in less than half a century. The monitorial system was followed by an inadequate pupil-teacher system of training. The government at this time was willing to give financial aid for the training of teachers, although religious jealousies prevented it from assuming full responsibility. It was not until the last decade of the century that the nation awoke to the necessity of giving a generous professional training to its teachers. How complete was the awakening is shown by the present feverish activity of reform along these and related lines.

Yet England made an honorable beginning. Richard Mulcaster (1530/2-1611), the contemporary of Roger Ascham, the teacher of Edmund Spenser and the first headmaster of the Merchant Taylors' School,[1] writing in his book "Positions" outlined, in 1581, a scheme for a university which was to consist of seven colleges. One of these was to be a training college for teachers. Stating the reasons for the training of teachers he proceeds: "And why should not these men have both this sufficiency in learning, and such room to rest in, then to be chosen and set forth for the common service? Be either children or schools so small a portion of our multitude! or is the framing of young minds, and the training of their bodies so mean a point of cunning? Be schoolmasters in this realm such a paucity, as they are not even in good sadness to be soundly thought on? if the

[1] Oliphant: Richard Mulcaster, XV.

chancel have a Minister, the belfry hath a master; and where youth is, as it is each where, there must be trainers, or there will be worse. He that will not allow of this careful provision for such a seminary of masters, is most unworthy either to have a good master himself, or hereafter to have a good one for his. Why should not teachers be well provided for, to continue their whole life in the school, as *Divines, Lawyers, Physicians* do in their several professions? Thereby judgment, cunning and discretion will grow in them—Whereas now, the school being used for a shift, afterward to pass thence to the other professions, though it send out very sufficient men to them, itself remaineth too too naked, considering the necessity of the thing. I conclude therefore, that this trade requireth a particular college, for these four causes: I. First for the subject being the mean to make or mar the whole fry of our state. II. Secondly for the number, whether of them that are to learn, or of them that are to teach. III. Thirdly for the necessity of the profession which may not be spared. IV. Fourthly for the matter of their study which is comparable to the greatest professions, for language, for judgment, for skill how to train, for variety in all points of learning, where in the framing of the mind, and the exercising of the body craveth exquisite consideration, beside the staidness of the person." [2]

Two kinds of statements are commonly met with in the writings of early English educators; the first expressing a supreme dissatisfaction with the qualifications of the existing schoolmasters, the second making specious promises and giving explicit directions whereby these same poor teachers may become experts in the various branches of their profession. Of the former type the statement of John Lyly in the "Anatomy of Wit" (1579) may be cited as an example. "If among all his servants he shall espy one either filthy in his talk, or foolish in his behavior, either without wit, or void of honesty, either an unthrift or a wittall, him he sets not as a surveyor and overseer of his manors, but a supervisor of his children's conditions and manners, to him he committeth ye guiding and tuition of his sons, which is by his proper

[2] Mulcaster's Positions. Quick's Reprint, pp. 248–9. Spelling modified to conform to modern standards.

nature a slave, a knave by condition, a beast in behavior."[3] Of the latter Edmund Coote's reckless promises in his "Englishe Scholemaister," 1662, are typical: "I profess to teach thee that art utterly ignorant to read perfectly, to write truly and with judgment to understand the true reason of our English tongue with great expedition and pleasure. I will teach thee that art unperfect in either of them, to perfect thy skill in few days with good ease — I assure all schoolmasters of the English tongue, that they shall not only teach their scholars with greater perfection, but also they shall with more ease and profit, and in shorter time teach an hundred scholars, than before they could teach forty."[4]

John Brinsley (1587-1665), the schoolmaster of Ashby-de-la-Zouch, in his "Consolation for our Grammar Schooles" (1662) rightly diagnoses the case when he states that "the evils which grow from ignorance of a right order of teaching" are due to the fewness of those who "are acquainted with any good method of right order of instruction fit for a grammar schoole."

Charles Hoole (1618-1666), the translator of the "Orbis Pictus" of Comenius, and the author of at least twenty-four[5] works on education, shows in "the Petty School," "the Usher's Duty," and "the New Discovery of the Old Art of Teaching" that he was fully alive to the necessity of providing teachers who were capable of using more advanced methods than were then customary.

The foregoing passages are illustrative of the needs of the time and the unsatisfactory way in which they were met. The evil was accentuated by the intolerant Acts of the Stuarts—the Act of Uniformity 1662, the Five Mile Act of 1665 and the two Conventicle Acts of 1664 and 1670—which drove many intelligent non-conformist pastors and teachers from the country.

A proposal which promised to relieve the situation somewhat was that of the Society for Promoting (or Propagating, which

[3] Cf. also Fuller: The Good Schoolmaster, in Barnard: English Pedagogy, I, 403.

[4] These extracts are from Foster Watson: Early English writers on Education. C. R. 1904, 634–701.

[5] Barnard: English Pedagogy, II, p. 191.

was used as an alternative title) Christian Knowledge. This society was founded by Dr. Bray in 1698 and had for its object "the education of poor children in reading and writing, and more especially in the principles of the Christian religion."[6] The schools founded by the society became known as "charity schools" and towards their support "charity sermons" were preached. The intention of the society to provide a national system of education for the poor was never realized, yet the number and distribution of the schools in the first half of the eighteenth century indicate that a vigorous educational campaign was prosecuted. The foundation of a large number of new schools created a demand for schoolmasters "of a good genius for teaching" who could "write a good hand." "A training institution for the preparation of masters was proposed in 1703, and though funds seem to have been wanting at that time, yet the project was not lost sight of, and school masters were recommended to associate together for mutual instruction and assistance."[7]

[6] Allen and McClure: S. P. C. K. 1698–1898, p. 23.

[7] Allen and McClure: S. P. C. K., p. 143. I have been unable to verify this statement. The first authentic account of training of teachers in England that I have been able to discover is that which describes the work of Joseph Lancaster in his school at Borough Road in 1805, although the following History of the Homerton College, Cambridge, is given in the annual report for 1908:—"The work of the College dates from the foundation of the King's Head Society in 1695. This society was established for the purpose of aiding weak Congregational Churches, and seems from the first to have taken in not only the preaching but the teaching work of such churches. In 1723 the Society became amalgamated with the Congregational Fund Board, and an Academy was started in 1730 at the Plasterer's Hall. It was removed to Mile End in 1753, and to Homerton in 1769. The work of training both ministers and teachers at Homerton was continued through the eighteenth century, and the College was rebuilt in 1822, and carried on as a residential college under Dr. John Pye-Smith. For some time previously the work of training teachers had been discontinued, theological students only being admitted. At the Congregational Union meeting in 1843 it was decided to raise a sum of £250,000 for educational purposes, and the Congregational Board of Education was founded. * * * In 1850 Homerton College was purchased and the Board's Educational work was carried on there until 1894, when Cavendish College, Cambridge, was bought and the work of the Congregational Board of Education transferred to it."

The charity schools and the various endowed schools which sprang into existence after the removal of the non-conformist disabilities provided the country with some 2,500 schools for the education of the poor.[8] This revival of interest in education proved to be but temporary. Before the close of the century the nation was as apathetic as ever.

Contrast this with the situation abroad. Germany was instituting a national system of education. In addition she was making extensive provision for the training of teachers. In 1696 Francke established his Seminarium Praeceptorium at Halle. Two years later Frederick II founded ten "Seminaria Scholastica." Francke's work was continued and extended by two of his pupils, Schienmeyer and Hecker. Schienmeyer established a department for training teachers at Stettin in 1732. Hecker opened a normal school at Berlin in 1748 which gave such an impetus to the teacher training movement that before the close of the century Germany was fairly well provided with normal schools. The work of Basedow at Dessau, of Salzmann at Schnepfenthal are also worthy of mention. In France and Switzerland we also find, in the latter half of the country, a widespread idea of the necessity for the training of schoolmasters. Our word "normal'' remains as a proof of the influence of French ideas and terminology upon the English conception of the training of teachers.

These continental schools were almost certainly visited in the eighteenth century by English teachers, who must have felt their influence, yet it is not until the nineteenth century that we find authentic accounts of such visits. Dr. Bell visited Yverdun, Hofwyl and Fribourg in 1816. Of Pestalozzi he writes, "the chief I am charmed with: he has much that is original, much that is excellent. If he had a course of study — if he were to dismiss four-fifths of his masters, retaining three, and to adopt the monitorial system and the classification of a Madras School, with the emulation, he would be super-excellent."[9] Of more lasting benefit were the visits paid by Sir Jas. Kay Shuttleworth and by Matthew Arnold for they had direct bearing upon the educational

[8] De Montmorency: National Education and National Life, p. 204.

[9] Southey: Life of Bell, vol. III, p. 94.

procedure of the time. The founding of Battersea normal school was the immediate outcome of one of Shuttleworth's tours.[10]

The people were aroused from their apathy by the social and educational problems engendered by the industrial revolution. To this end the writings of Shenstone, Gray, Cowper, Crabbe and Adam Smith were undoubtedly contributory.[11] The revival of interest was expressed by the founding of Sunday Schools and later by the Monitorial System.

It is in the "Monitorial" and its later development, the "Pupil-teacher" system, that we find the peculiarly English contribution to the idea of training teachers. Though the monitorial system is inseparably connected with the names of Dr. Andrew Bell (1753-1832), and Joseph Lancaster (1778-1838), neither of them can rightly claim the honor of priority in its invention. It was in active use in Elizabethan times.[12] Comenius maintained that one teacher will suffice for the instruction of any number of boys. He arranged the scholars in groups of ten with a reliable boy over each group. The groups he calls *Decuriae* and the captains *Decuriones*.[13] John Brinsley, in a book entitled "Ludus Literarius, or the Grammar Schoole," published anonymously in 1612, lays down the monitorial principle in the most explicit language.[14]

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[10] Shuttleworth: Four Periods of Public Education, pp. 296–310.

[11] William Shenstone (1714–1763): The Schoolmistress.

Thomas Gray (1716–1771): On a Distant Prospect of Eton College: also, the Alliance of Education and Government.

William Cowper (1731–1796): Tirocinium; or, a Review of Schools.

George Crabbe (1754–1832): Schools of the Borough.

Adam Smith (1723–1790): Wealth of Nations, Book V.

[12] "Thus, in 1524, the statutes of Manchester Grammar School provide that 'the high master for the time being, shall always appoint one of his scholars to instruct and teach in the one end of the school, all infants that shall come there, etc.'" (Binns: A Century of Education, 1808–1908: p. 297). "In beginning any one branch of knowledge, the governor or headmaster shall 'teach the first lesson of every kind himself in the presence of his ushers, that they may observe his way.'" (Dury, J.: The Reformed School, c. 1649; quoted by Adamson: Pioneers of Modern Education, p. 151.)

[13] Laurie; John Amos Comenius, p. 131.

[14] De Montmorency: National Education and National Life, p. 207.

The Monitorial System of Bell and Lancaster developed out of the exigencies of the situation. Both wanted teachers, and both were unable to supply them, so they began to train older and brighter boys for this office. The system demanded careful attention to the management of the school and consequently "method" attained its first real prominence in English education.[15] In class management the most mechanical of routine drills became essential. The system also led to the excessive use of emulation and rewards. In the accounts for 1803 we find that with only 217 pupils on the roll, sixteen guineas ($84) were spent in purchasing 5,000 toys. In all, sixty cents per head were spent on rewards.[16] The punishments, while not so brutal as aforetime, were far more degrading and humiliating.

Lancaster began his work as a teacher in 1798. His first scholars were waifs and strays whom he fed and clothed as well as taught. His restricted premises became quite inadequate for the increasing crowds of children, and the school was twice removed. Its final site was in Borough Road — a place that has played the most important of rôles in the training of teachers in England. The school increased at a greater rate than the subscriptions, and Lancaster, in his desire for economy, was led to utilize the services of the elder scholars as assistants. These he called monitors, and there is abundant evidence that training was given from 1805 onwards. "At this time (1805) the sum of £400 was raised in donations, as a capital for training schoolmasters by boarding youths for that purpose."[17] In the balance sheet for 1811 we find the following items: "Board of those training for schoolmasters and servants of the Institution £1119-6s.-1d.; clothing of lads training for schoolmasters £293-16s.-9d." Such large sums indicate that the training at this time was conducted on a large scale.

Lancaster's early educational efforts were financed by his co-religionists — the Quakers. Subscriptions from various mem-

[15] In the literature of school method the English were early in the field. Roger Ascham's Scholemaster, written 1563–4 and first published in 1571, though chiefly concerned with classical training, discusses and promulgates principles that are applicable to all subjects. For this he has been called the Father of School Method.

[16] Lancaster's Improvements, 3rd ed., p. 16.

[17] Report of Progress, 1798–1808, p. 4.

bers of the Royal Family were received after Lancaster's interview with the King in 1805. But the system needed a firmer foundation and so the Royal Lancasterian Society was founded in 1808. Lancaster was an improvident, jealous and suspicious reformer — a type of man who could not possibly work amicably with a committee. The strained relations almost reached a breaking point in 1814 when the committee changed the name of the society to the "British and Foreign School Society," but Lancaster did not actually sever his connection with the society till 1818. The work of the society was continued without him. In 1818 he sailed for America where for twenty years he worked for the establishment of Lancasterian schools. He met his death in a carriage accident in New York City in 1838.[18]

Dr. Bell, the other exponent of the monitorial system, was just as extravagantly vain of his achievement as Lancaster, but he was more prudent and cautious. His career was varied but was uniformly successful. From 1789 to 1796 he was superintendent of the Military Male Orphan Asylum at Madras, in which institution he introduced monitorial instruction. On his return to England he published an account of his experiment in India.[19] Lancaster obtained a copy of the work and received great benefit from it. In his "Improvements" he admits his indebtedness.

Something akin to a friendship seems to have existed between Bell and Lancaster during the early years of the century, but this seems to have been destroyed by the meddlesome interference of Mrs. Trimmer in 1805.[20] From this time on, mutual jealousy was prominent. Differences of religious belief accentuated the ill-feeling. Bell was a minister of the Church of England; Lancaster was a Quaker. In Lancasterian schools the Bible was read without note or comment; in schools under Church control doctrinal teaching was considered essential. The rapid success of the Lancasterian system led to a revival of the zeal of the Church in the matter of education. Churchmen became unanimous in their desire for greater control of the Church

[18] Salmon David. Joseph Lancaster. Binns, H. B. A century of education 1808–1908.

[19] An experiment in education made at the Male Asylum at Madras suggesting a system by which a school or family may teach itself under the superintendence of the Master or the Parent.

[20] Southey: Life of Bell, I, p. 132.

over the schooling of the masses of the population. At a meeting of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge in 1811 it was resolved to found an organization to be known as "The National Society for the education of the poor in the principles of the established Church throughout England and Wales." The society was incorporated in 1817. The founding of this society marks the beginning of the religious difficulties, still unsettled, which, more than anything else, have prevented a healthy and normal development of English elementary education.

The work of the National Society closely paralleled the work of its rival. The committee quickly established a large school, first on Holborn Hill, later in Grays Inn Lane, where a thousand children could be taught and a number of teachers trained. As in the Lancasterian system both men and women were trained to be teachers. Subscriptions came in freely and an extensive system of elementary schools (termed national schools) with teachers trained at the central school in London, came into being. The report for 1815 states that "the society retained in its pay ten masters in the central school who were sent to the assistance of persons interesting themselves in the formation and remodelling of schools upon the National system."[21]

The most successful development of the monitorial system took place in Ireland. This was in connection with the work of the famous Kildare Place Society (1811-1831). This society, founded in 1811, was managed by an influential committee of twenty-one members (raised to thirty-one in 1815) and had for its object "the fitting up of schoolhouses upon a suitable plan and for providing teachers properly qualified, and also for the procuring of books and other necessary articles." The society was poor at first, and the monitorial system of Lancaster strongly appealed to the committee because of its economical working. Further, the religious teaching in Lancasterian schools was of a nature that had worked successfully in Ireland from 1786. The committee, therefore, made the reading of the Bible without doctrinal explanation a fundamental principle of the society.

From its inception the society attempted to train teachers. In order to acquire Lancasterian methods the society invited John Veevers, a trusted lieutenant of Lancaster, to take charge of the

[21] Gregory: National Education, p. 23.

training of teachers. They did not, however, slavishly adopt Lancasterian methods but critically observed Veevers to find in what particulars his methods were superior to those previously employed. Funds running short, the society asked Parliamentary aid to carry on its work. Parliament responded by granting £6,980 ($34,900) to build a model school at Kildare Place.[22] In this way the English custom of experimenting with measures in Ireland before adopting them permanently in England, now extended to many other fields, was inaugurated. The Parliamentary grant became annual and increased from £9,653 in 1815 to £30,000 in 1825. In 1819 an extension of premises became necessary and Kildare Place No. 2 was established. A third extension took place in 1824, when the training of mistresses was undertaken. One hundred and fifty masters and sixty mistresses were turned out annually and by 1831, when Parliamentary grants were discontinued, 1908 men and 500 women had been trained.

The customary method of extending educational facilities at that time was to build a school, appoint a master, and then send him to be trained. His period of training at Kildare Place was of six weeks duration; shorter if he were brilliant, longer if no special aptitude were shown, but in all cases the maximum period was four months. The training was for the most part given in the school, although the daily lectures by the superintendent early in the morning, and the individual tuition given from 6-8 o'clock in the evening, undoubtedly contributed to the same end. The communal dormitory life must have been highly beneficial to country teachers from outlying districts. The work in the school, which ran from 10 A.M. to 3 P.M., consisted of (1) observation and the keeping of the various records and registers; (2) actual practice in the management of the individual classes or of the whole school. Besides drill in the teaching of ordinary school subjects, e. g., along Pestalozzian lines in arithmetic, the student-teachers were expected to work out special local difficulties, to draw plans for new schools and to make lists of school requisites. The training of the women teachers was of a similar nature except that cookery and laundry work were compulsory subjects. The cost for women was always greater than for men.

[22] Sir Robert Peel was largely instrumental in obtaining the grant.

The reverse of this is true at the present time. At the end of the training period the student-teachers were given a very practical examination and, if successful, were granted certificates.

Other features of the society's work were the system of inspection, the publication of cheap books, and the distribution of grants. The publication of books on a large scale began in 1816 when the sum of £6,000 ($30,000) was granted by Parliament to carry on the work of the Cheap Book Society. One hundred pounds was paid to Lancaster for the right of publication of his works. The society took great care not to publish works that would offend religious susceptibilities. With one minor exception they were successful in their efforts. In all, 1,464,817 books were printed, many of which found their way to England and Scotland and even to America.[23] The books were sold at reduced rates. The "Schoolmaster's Manual," the Kildare Place parallel of the "Manual of Primary Instruction" by the British Society, was probably the most important work. It was planned in 1813 but was not completed until 1825. The methods advocated are wider in scope and not so mechanical as those of the British Society. Other educational publications of the society were a reading and a spelling book, both consisting of tablets for class instruction, an extempore and a dictating arithmetic, Pestalozzi's[24] arithmetic tables, the principles of plane geometry and trigonometry, and treatises on mechanics and general geography. Lending libraries were encouraged. There was also a school library attached to every Kildare Place School. The system of inspection began with the visitation tours of schools by Veevers during his vacation; later, when the system of gratuities to teachers, ranging from £2-£10 (majority £5) according to the excellence of their schools, was instituted, an inspectorial staff of eight persons was formed. These inspectors were propagandist missionaries and did a noble work under conditions of great hardship. Other grants by the society were made to pay the travelling expenses and part cost of the student-teacher's training.

It was on the rock of religious teaching that the system of teacher training, which attracted visitors from all parts of

[23] Hansard, 3rd series, vol. VI, p. 1249.

[24] Pestalozzi and Fellenberg were honorary members of the society.

Europe, came to grief. Ireland was peopled with Roman Catholics, who demanded distinctive religious teaching, and charged the society with proselytism. When the society stood firm, they set up opposition schools. The result of this was the commission of Irish education inquiry in 1824. The report of the commission endorsed the reasonableness of the Catholic hostility to the society although it refuted the charges of proselytism and heartily commended the system for its training of teachers. In 1831 the Hon. E. G. Stanley definitely announced that it was the intention of the government to withdraw grants and so put an end to the society as a means for state education.[25] The work was taken over by the Board of Commissioners of National Education. In this way ended a very praiseworthy attempt to found a national system of education, the basis of which was to be an army of trained teachers.[26]

The development of teacher training in Scotland was different from that in England and Ireland. England and Ireland had adopted the monitorial system in its entirety. Scotland, on the other hand, had leanings towards the Infant School System. This was probably a result, although the connection is rather difficult to trace, of Robert Owen's experiment with the education of child-workers at his New Lanark mills.[27] Certain it is that Henry Brougham in 1818 took James Buchanan, the simple weaver who was so successful as an infant school teacher, from his post as superintendent at New Lanark to be head of the new school at Westminster.[28] Samuel Wilderspin was the next in line of succession. He certainly obtained his inspiration and much of his knowledge from Buchanan and Owen, although, later in life, when in the zenith of his power, he repudiated any indebtedness.[29] David Stow, the founder of the system of teacher training in Scotland, was a disciple of Wilderspin's. In a memorandum to the Committee of Council in 1840 on the origin of the Glasgow Educational Society Stow wrote "The Origin of our society was for the establishment of infant schools

[25] Hansard, 3rd series, vol. VI, p. 1249.

[26] The material for the above was largely obtained from Moore: An Unwritten Chapter in the History of Education.

[27] Owen: New View Society. 3rd Essay.

[28] Brougham: In House of Commons, Dec., 1819.

[29] Wilderspin: Early discipline, p. 331.

and training infant schoolmasters, not precisely upon Wilderspin's plan, but we got him down at our expense to train our first and present master of our infant department (Mr. Caughie) in his mode of physical training. * * * The model infant school was established in 1826-7, and from its commencement was intended as a training school for teachers and now, viz., in 1832-3, both the infant and juvenile schools are not only models but schools for training schoolmasters, and have trained a considerable number of teachers for infant and juvenile schools of all sects for home and foreign parts."[30] Prior to 1831 the school was attended solely by children under six years of age. In that year another school was added for children above that age. By 1840, 505 teachers had been trained in the institution.[31]

In Edinburgh the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland had endeavored to train teachers from 1825 onwards. Their model school in Tron Parish was devoted to the education of poor children and to the training of an inferior type of schoolmaster. In 1835 the work was extended to include all teachers willing to profit by the facilities afforded.

When the government, in 1839, through the agency of the Committee of Council on Education, began to distribute grants in aid of normal schools both the Glasgow Educational Society and the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland hastened to apply for financial assistance. After a careful consideration of the two cases, the committee concluded that it would best benefit education if the work of the two societies were consolidated. They, therefore, granted the sum of £10,000 ($50,000) to the General Assembly on condition that they would assume all obligations for the continuance of the educational work of the Glasgow Educational Society.[32] The offer was accepted on May 27th, 1842.

It has been previously pointed out that the first government grants for education were made in 1815 to aid the work of the Kildare Place Society in Ireland. The Reform Bill of 1832 paved the way for an extension of the principle of government support for education to the countries of Great Britain. Accordingly, in 1833, a grant of £20,000 ($100,000) was made for

[30] Minutes of Committee of Council, 1841–42, p. 6.

[31] Ibid., 1841–42, p. 9.

[32] Ibid., 1841–42, pp. 29–58.

purposes of education. The money was to be devoted to the erection of school-houses in Great Britain. Finding a serious lack of competent teachers the government attempted to remedy the matter by voting a sum of £10,000 ($50,000) for the erection of model schools. Although the money was voted in 1835, it was not until the formation of the Committee of Council on Education in 1839, to administer the moneys voted by the Commons, that any action was taken.

From 1839 onwards: The formation of the Committee of Council in 1839, to frustrate the obscurantist tactics of Parliament against the formation of a central authority, marks the beginning of a new era in English education. The Committee had for its first secretary the enlightened Dr. Jas. Kay (afterwards Sir Jas. Kay Shuttleworth) to whom much of the early success must be attributed. One of the first things dealt with was the question of the national normal school. The Committee was created on April 19th, 1839. On April 13th an elaborate scheme for the guidance of the committee in the question of a national normal school was presented.[33] The scheme was to include a normal school where students in training could reside, a model boarding school for 450 children, and a day school for 250 children in which the student-teachers could realize the application of the best methods of instruction. Circumstances, however, were too strong for the Committee. The two rival societies, the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society, were so strongly entrenched that their hostility to the proposed government plan was sufficient to make it abortive. Consequently, the committee recommended "that the sum of ten thousand pounds, granted by Parliament in 1835 towards the erection of normal or model schools, be given in equal proportions to the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society."[34] The right of inspection was retained "in order to secure a conformity to the regulations and discipline established in the several schools, with such improvements as may from time to time be suggested by the committee."

About this time a new principle was introduced into the education of the English school-master. The monitorial system had

[33] Shuttleworth: Four periods of Education, p. 179.

[34] Minute of Committee of Council, June 3rd, 1839.

been tried and found wanting, for it proved impossible to retain monitors long enough to enable them to become proficient. The idea was then conceived of giving them greater permanency of position, with correspondingly greater prestige, by binding them apprentice to the school-master for a period of years. The apprenticeship in the main was to give a practical training. The theoretical training along professional lines was postponed to the post-apprenticeship period in the newly established training colleges. This is the first differentiation between the preliminary training and the more formal professional training of a teacher. These two phases will be kept separate in the discussion which follows, although in actual practice it must be remembered there is an organic connection between them. The preliminary training will be dealt with first.

The first utilization of an apprentice or pupil-teacher seems to have occurred in a Norfolk workhouse school in the late thirties.[35] Kay Shuttleworth as an assistant Poor Law Commissioner had also trained monitors who expected to make teaching a profession. The actual scheme, however, was borrowed from Holland. During a visit to Holland in 1837, Shuttleworth had found a system of apprenticeship in operation. The apprentices were known as pupil-teachers. The original intention in the English system was to select monitors from the best pupils in the classes, and pupil-teachers from the best of these monitors. The following description of a pupil-teacher was given in the Minutes of the Committee of Council, 1839-40:

"A young teacher, in the first instance introduced to the notice of the master by his good qualities, as one of the best instructed and most intelligent of the children; whose attainments and skill are full of promise; and who, having consented to remain at a low rate of remuneration in the school, is further rewarded by being enabled to avail himself of the opportunities afforded him for attaining practical skill in the art of teaching, by daily practice in the school, and by the gratuitous superintendence of his reading and studies by the master, from whom he receives lessons on technical subjects of school instruction every evening."

Although the scheme outlined by the Committee of Council in 1839 worked fairly successfully, it was really the demand on the part of the rapidly increasing training colleges for students with

[35] Shuttleworth: Four Periods of Education, p. 287.

better previous training, that led to the minutes of 1846 which confirmed England in her pupil-teacher policy to the end of the century. These minutes provided for the apprenticeship of the most deserving and proficient pupils from the age of 13 to that of 18. One pupil-teacher was allowed for each twenty-five scholars in the school but not more than four could be apprenticed to one headmaster at the same time. The headmaster was to instruct the apprentices not less than seven and one-half hours per week, and was to receive for his services £3 increment of salary for each pupil-teacher under his charge. The pupil-teacher was to receive directly from the government a stipend increasing from £10 ($50) at the close of the first year to £20 ($100) at the close of the fifth year of his apprenticeship. At the end of each year the pupil-teacher was to be examined by one of her Majesty's inspectors in the course of instruction, the subjects of which were to be enumerated in the regulations. At the completion of the course the pupil-teacher was to receive a certificate stating that he had completed his apprenticeship. The pupil-teacher was expected to continue his training at one of the normal schools or training colleges as they were afterwards called. Since the pupil-teacher was usually recruited from the ranks of the workers it was necessary to give him financial aid to enable him to meet the expenses of training. This was secured by making all pupil-teachers who had successfully completed their apprenticeships eligible competitors in the examinations for "Queen's Scholarships." The successful candidates received personally from £20 to £25 ($100-$125) during their residence in a training college. In this way the government hoped to get a continuous succession to training colleges of candidates having much higher attainments and greater skill and energy than those who had hitherto entered them.[36]

The hopes of the government were not disappointed. In spite of a more discriminating selection on the part of inspectors, the numbers of pupil-teachers increased so rapidly that no small difficulty was experienced in financing the scheme. In 1848 there were 200 pupil-teachers; in 1861, when the Newcastle Commission (1858-1861) reported, there were 13,871.[37] Certain diffi-

[36] Shuttleworth: Four Periods of Public Education: 3rd period, chap. III. Board of Education: Report on Training of Pupil-teachers, p. 3.

[37] Report on the Training of Pupil-teachers, p. 5.

culties, caused by differences in values in town and country districts, arose. To remedy these, the Newcastle Commission recommended that the existing system of grants should be abolished and replaced by a capitation grant. Lowe's revised code carried out these proposals and based the grants on the results of individual examinations of the pupils in reading, writing and arithmetic. The code also destroyed the system of apprenticeship of the pupil-teacher to the headmaster of the school, and substituted in its place an agreement between the pupil-teacher and managers terminable on either side at six months' notice.[38]

The results of the revised code were most injurious to the office of pupil-teacher. The master had now nothing to gain or lose by the success or failure of an apprentice. The new system of grants caused a reduction in amount of salaries, for these were now fixed by an agreement between the pupil-teacher and the managers of the schools. Consequently, a serious decline both in the numbers and the attainments of pupil-teachers took place. The numbers declined from 13,871 in 1861 to 8,866 in 1866. This state of affairs caused a select committee of the House of Commons to be formed to investigate the matter. This committee, in 1867 recommended (Mr. Corry's Minutes) that an additional grant be given to schools having a strengthened staff, part of which might be composed of pupil-teachers. The recommendation was incorporated in the codes from 1868-1871. The immediate effect was to increase the number of pupil-teachers. There were 11,031 in 1868 and 14,612 in 1870.[39]

The history of the pupil-teacher system from the great elementary education Act of 1870 onwards is one of the gradual decay of the apprenticeship idea coupled with the growing recognition of the need for a wider academic preparation. The growth of "centre classes" where the pupil-teachers from a local area were collected and instructed was the largest factor in the decline of the idea of apprenticeship. The first of these central classes was in 1874. The idea spread rapidly and was even supported by that most conflicting report—the report of the Cross Commission in 1888. Out of the centre classes pupil-teacher centres developed in the late nineties. Few of them are left—the preliminary training of the teacher is now given in secondary

[38] Report on the Training of Pupil-teachers, pp. 5–6.
[39] Ibid, p. 6.

schools. The breakdown was also aided by the gradual increase in the minimum age of admission to pupil-teachership. In 1878, the age was raised from 13 to 14 years; in 1896, to 15 except in country districts where it remained at 14; while at the present time the age is 16 for urban, and 15 for rural districts. The length of the pupil-teacher service has correspondingly decreased. The usual period from 1878 was four years. In 1900 it was reduced to three years; in 1903 to two years, reducible to a single year in special cases.[40]

The need for wider academic training of the prospective teacher has long been realized. Matthew Arnold reporting as far back as 1852 had stated:—"I have been much struck in examining them (i.e. the pupil-teachers) at the close of their apprenticeship, when they are generally at least eighteen years old, with the utter disproportion between the great amount of positive information and the low degree of mental culture and intelligence which they exhibit."[41] The various remedial measures did not seem to overcome the inherent difficulties in a system which tried to combine salaried employment with instruction during the receptive period of adolescence. The pupil-teacher was too immature to teach effectively, too much engrossed with economic employment to do justice to his studies. The minority report of the Cross Commission, 1888, stated that some of the bad results of the system would be eliminated if there were a more prolonged period of preliminary education before students were entrusted with the management of classes. A departmental commission sitting from 1896—1898 confirmed this view. They stated " we think it extremely desirable that all intending teachers should pass through a secondary school for the completion of their ordinary education. * * * The preparation of young teachers can and ought to approximate more closely to the more liberal methods and studies which would help bring them to the same level as the best scholars of the secondary schools."[42] This committee also looked forward to the time when the centres would be converted into well staffed and properly equipped secondary schools " where, although perhaps intending teachers may be in the majority, they will have ampler time for their studies

[40] Report on the Training of Pupil-teachers, pp. 6–18.

[41] Ibid, p. 7.

[42] Ibid, pp. 11–12.

and will be instructed side by side with pupils who have other careers in view."[43] Subsequent legislation has been designed to carry out these proposals. The Education Act of 1902 paved the way by placing all education in a given area under one local authority. The regulations for the preliminary education of teachers, first issued in 1903, were framed (1) to carry on as far as possible the academic education during pupil-teachership, and (2) to defer employment in public elementary schools to a later age than had previously been the case in order to facilitate the preliminary education of future teachers. Intending teachers were, therefore, instructed from 14 to 16 either in secondary schools or in preparatory classes attached to pupil-teacher centres. A re-organized system of grants to carry out the scheme effectively was also instituted.[44]

In recent years, from 1905 onwards, the pupil-teacher system has been rapidly replaced by the bursar and student-teacher systems. The system which is described in chapter III is intended to provide intending teachers with a secondary education up to 16 or 17 years of age, followed by one year of practical teaching in an elementary school before entrance into a training college is gained. The student-teacher year may, however, be omitted.

In the previous section the legislative development of education of the teacher prior to his entry into a training college has been traced. The present section deals with the development of the training colleges themselves.

The monitorial system had provided a few imperfectly trained teachers from the year 1805. In 1836 the Home and Colonial Society established a training college for female teachers in Gray's Inn Road. This school is still in existence although it was removed to Wood Green in 1903. Another famous private effort was the opening of Battersea Training School for training teachers for pauper children by Shuttleworth and Tufnell early in 1840.

The school at Battersea is famous in educational history for two reasons (1) because it was established by the private liberality of two persons to test whether it was possible to train men of lowly origin to have noble ideas and right enthusiasms (Shut-

[43] Report on the Training of Pupil-teachers, p. 12.

[44] Regulations for the Preliminary Education of Teachers 1903. Prefatory Memorandum.

tleworth acted as superintendent of the institution for a number of years); and (2) because it represents one of the first attempts to found in England a school based on a continental model. Shuttleworth's introduction of the Dutch pupil-teacher system has already been mentioned. The model for the Battersea Training School was Vehrli's school at Kruitzlingen. In a report of his continental tour Shuttleworth states: "We were greatly charmed in this school by the union of comparatively high intellectual attainments among the scholars with the utmost simplicity of life and cheerfulness in the humblest menial labor. * * * We therefore cherish the hope that on this plan a normal school might be founded for the training of teachers, to whom the schools for pauper children might be usefully committed."[45] The life at the school was studiously simple. A large part of every day was employed in manual labor in the garden, which was brought into cultivation by the students and provided most of the vegetables consumed in the school. Only one servant—a cook—was provided. The whole of the work of the school was directed towards one end—the training of character. Generous support was accorded by the government, but the founders being unwilling to accept the growing responsibility for the continuance of the school and finding suitable openings for their graduates only with great difficulty, finally turned it over to the National Society in 1843.[46]

A noteworthy feature of the early development of training schools is the part played by the religious denominations and the educational societies. It will be remembered that the annual government grants, during the early years, were given to the two societies for the building of schools on condition that an equal amount was raised locally. These promoted great building activity and as such were beneficial; but, unfortunately, they also established denominational control over the training of teachers. The Church of England was especially active. Not only the National Society, but the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge also expended large sums for the erection and mainte-

[45] Shuttleworth: Four Periods of Education, p. 307–8.

[46] Minutes of the Committee of Council: 1842–3, p. 200.
Newcastle Commission Report: I, pp. 108–149.
Shuttleworth: Four Periods of Education, p. 429.

nance of training colleges.[47] In addition, Diocesan Boards of Education were founded by members of the Church of England to meet the government requirements as to local support. The British and Foreign Society confined its efforts to rebuilding Borough Road. The new buildings were opened in 1842.

The difficulties of the early normal schools were very great. The range of ages of the students was very wide. At Battersea the ages ranged from 14 to 42; although the minimum age of entrance was raised to 16 when it was taken over by the National Society in 1843. The older students could only make a short stay. But the greatest difficulty experienced was the lamentable weakness of the previous education of the students. Some of them could barely read or write. The following report (abbreviated) for 1841 of the Glasgow Normal Seminary by John Gibson, H.M.I., throws much light upon the working of one of the better normal schools at that time:

The minimum period of attendance is six months; it has on the average extended to between eight and nine months. Course of study embraces the following branches:—physics; natural history; geography; arithmetic and algebra; English grammar and sacred history; elocution; music and gymnastics.

Sixteen and one-half out of the forty hours they are in attendance at the seminary are spent in receiving instruction. The remainder of the time is employed in training them to skill in the art of teaching, and in communicating to them enlarged and enlightened views on the general subjects of education. The expedients adopted for these purposes are four: (1) Observation of the model schools; (2) Giving lessons in the hall, both in the gallery and in classes; (3) Giving Bible lessons to each other; and (4) Public criticism.

Two months are spent in observation. The next two months in teaching under the direction of the head of the department in which the student may happen to be placed. During the last months he takes a very active part in teaching and in giving criticism lessons. In the criticism lessons "the students sit as spectators and auditors, critically observing and jotting down, for future use, in their note books, any peculiarities or defects of manner (such as awkwardness of movement, monotony of

[47] "Before 1870 Church people expended £194,085 on erecting training colleges, and £94,810 in maintaining them; since that date they have had to furnish £94,810 for the first of these objects, and £327,391 for the second." Gregory: Elementary Education, p. 58. See also Financial Return for training colleges from foundation, July, 1906.

tone, want of animation, want of success in securing and riveting the attention), and at the same time watching any inaccuracy, or deficiency, or superfluity of statement; any infelicity of illustration and analogy; and inaptitude in eliciting information of which the children had been previously in possession; in short, any want of skill in communicating and vividly presenting to the minds that of which they had been ignorant.

Four such lessons are given, each occupying fifteen minutes. The breaks between them are filled in by singing of a hymn followed by practical exercise.

In the Bible lesson to each other, the students are taught by one of their number as if they were six or seven years old. The answers to the simple questions put by the teachers are supposed to be of such a nature that a child of six or seven would naturally give. He concludes the report by stating that the impression left was "that the students had been led to attach an undue prominence to them (i. e. the criticism lessons). This conviction was deepened when I came to the observation of the manner in which their labors in the model school were conducted."[48]

The above report is typical of a score of others given in the early minutes of the committee.

To remove some of these difficulties the minutes of 1846 were passed. These minutes, through the institution of a government supported apprenticeship, provided a continuous supply of fairly well educated candidates for the training schools. They also provided for most of the personal expenses of the students during his three years' residence in college.[49] To the training colleges grants of £20 to £30 ($100-$150) were made on account of Queen's Scholars for each year of their training. The college deficit was made up by students' fees, endowments and voluntary contributions. At the end of the college course, certificates, divided into three classes, were granted. This certificate entitled the holder to an augmentation of salary ranging from £15 to £30 ($75-$150) on condition that the trustees and managers of the school over which he had charge provided him with a house rent free, and with a further salary equal to twice the amount of the grant. Mistresses earned grants two-thirds the amount of those awarded to a master.[50] All grants to teachers were made

[48] Minutes of Committee of Council, 1840–1, p. 412.

[49] This could be reduced to two years in the case of exceptionally well prepared Queen's Scholars. At the present time the normal period is two years.

[50] Minutes of Committee of Council, 1846, I, pp. 11–12.

by Post Office Orders, payable personally to them.[51] A pension system was also inaugurated. Teachers were thus civil servants in a very real sense from the time of the 1846 minutes to that of the revised code of 1861.

The minutes of 1846 were the immediate cause of a rapid advance in the qualifications of teachers. The curriculum of the training was broadened to include religious knowledge, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, drawing, vocal music and school management. The syllabus for female candidates included compulsory domestic economy. The underlying theory of instruction of the training schools seems to have been an extended and advanced study of the various branches taught in the elementary schools at that time.[52] Instruction in the art of teaching was given by means of lectures, and by actual practice in the practising and model schools. In some colleges the two schools were combined; in others they were distinct.

According to the minutes of 1846 the attendance at a normal school was a necessary condition of certification. In 1847 a retrograde step was made. Certification solely by examination was introduced[53] and still holds the field. By this a teacher could become certified, though untrained, and without attending a normal school. The first external examinations were held in 1848. They soon became popular for the new certificates carried with them the augmentation of salary created by the 1846 minutes.

The progress in the provision of facilities for the training of teachers during the first twenty years of the Committee of Council is shown by the following table:

[51] Balfour: Educational Systems, p. 9.

[52] Newcastle Commission Report, I, pp. 115–126.

[53] Vide Minute, July 23, 1853, sec. 3.

TABLE I

Training colleges	Date of establishment	Date of earliest government grants for premises	Religious denomination with which connected	Number of students in 1858
(A) Colleges for Males Only				
Chester	1839	1843	Church of Engl. (D)	53
Chichester	1839	1851	" (D)	17
Lichfield	1839	....	" ...	...
Exeter	1839	1854	" (D)	44
Winchester	1839	nil.	" (D)	37
Battersea	1840	....	" (N. S.)	109
Chelsea (St. Mark's)	1841	1842	" (N. S.)	105
Durham	1841	1847	" (D)	47
Carnarvon	1846	1858	" ...	36
Carmarthen	1848	1849	" (N. S.)	36
Metropolitan	1849	1850	" ...	72
Saltley	1852	1852	" (D)	59
Hammersmith	1852	1852	Roman Catholic	46
Culham	1853	1853	Church of Engl. (D)	56
Bangor	....	1857	Non-denominational (B. and F.)	20
Peterborough	....	....	Church of Engl. (D)	15
(B) Colleges for Females Only				
Gray's Inn Road	1836	1856	Church of Engl. (H. and C.)	172
Salisbury	1840	1852	Church of Engl. (D)	60
Norwich	1840	1854	" (D)	39
Whitelands	1841	1851	" ...	106
Brighton	1842	1855	" (D)	45
Warrington	1844	1854	" (D)	90
Truro	1849	1859	" (D)	21
Derby	1851	1851	" (D)	40
Bishop's Stortford	1852	1854	" (D)	57
Bristol, Gloucester and Oxford	1853	1854	" (D)	69
Durham	1858	1858	" (D)	37
Liverpool	....	....	Roman Catholic	51
St. Leonards-on-sea	....	....	"	31
(C) Colleges for Both Males and Females				
Borough Road	....	1842	Non-denominational (B. and F.)	130
York and Ripon	1846	1846	Church of Engl.	109
Cheltenham	....	1850	"	155
Westminster	....	1852	Wesleyan	102
Homerton	....	....	Congregational	...

D=Diocesan; N. S.=National Society; B. and F.=British and foreign; H. and C.=Home and Colonial.

It will be seen from the table that 35 training colleges with an average attendance of 2965 were in existence in 1858.

The revised code made the teaching profession unpopular and during the next eight years training colleges passed through a very anxious period. With the Elementary Education Act of 1870 a revival took place but the energies of the country seemed to be absorbed in the task of providing the necessary elementary schools. From 1862 to 1890, in spite of a pressing necessity for new colleges only eight, viz.: Southlands (1872), Darlington (1872), Swansea (1872), Oxford (1873), North Kensington Tottenham (1878), Saffron Walden (1884) and Edge Hill (1885), were established.[54]

In some fields, notably in the extension of higher education for women, this same period was far from unproductive. The report of the Schools Inquiry Commission in 1870 brought before the public the unsatisfactory condition of the education of girls of the middle and upper classes. In 1872, the year of incorporation of Girton College, Cambridge, the Girls' Public Day School Trust was founded. Newnham Hall was opened in 1875; Lady Margaret Hall and Somerville Hall, Oxford, in 1878 and 1879 respectively. The opening up of the older universities was followed by a demand for professional training of secondary school teachers. In 1878, the Maria Grey College was established in Brondesbury. This was followed by the Cambridge Training College for women teachers, and the secondary training department of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, both in 1885.

The growth of a virile university life in the provincial towns drew public attention to the necessity of extending facilities for university education to the primary teacher. The association of the primary teacher with college students pursuing different curricula in the classroom and elsewhere, his contact with the teachers of wide scholarship could not fail to react beneficially upon the work of the elementary school. The Cross Commission in 1888 recommended the introduction of Day Training Colleges[55] attached to some university or college of university rank. Their recommendations, not without serious misgivings, were embodied in the code of 1890. These colleges are unde-

[54] Parliamentary Financial Return for Training Colleges from Foundation: 1906.

[55] Final Report, p. 100.

nominational and are consequently free from the religious difficulties. The students are registered students of a university and pursue college courses leading to a degree. Additional lectures in education and the usual practice in teaching are of course essential. The growth of the Day Training College has been phenomenally rapid, as may be seen from the subjoined list:

Birmingham 1890
Cardiff 1890
London, King's College 1890
Manchester 1890
Newcastle-on-Tyne 1890
Nottingham 1890
Cambridge 1891
Leeds 1891
Liverpool 1891
Bristol 1892
London, University College 1892 (discontinued 1895)
Oxford 1892
Bangor 1894
Reading 1899
Southampton 1899
Exeter 1901
London, Southampton St. 1902
London, Graystoke Place 1904

In 1890 day students were also admitted to residential colleges. A further extension of the day student principle was made in 1906,[56] when the government decided to pay 75% of the cost of establishment of training colleges provided the local authority would raise the remainder. Previous to this the proportions paid by the central and local authorities were reversed. Two county authorities, London and Cheshire, and five councils of county boroughs, Bolton, Walsall, Portsmouth, Brighton and Sheffield, have availed themselves of the generous offer.[57] All these new city training colleges, for that is what they really amount to, approximate closely to the American type.

The results of the day training college movement have been highly beneficial. They have reacted upon the residential colleges, making them more liberal in character especially with regard to their curricula. In England and Wales there are now thirty of these colleges providing accommodations for 5,058 students.[58]

Other recent movements affecting the teaching profession which may be noted are the revival of the teachers' pension fund

[56] Regulations for the Training of Teachers, 1906.

[57] N. U. T. Red Code, 1909, p. 309.

[58] Statistics of Public Education in England and Wales 1907–8, pp. 245 and 407.

(discontinued by the revised code of 1862) in a more elaborate and comprehensive form in 1898;[59] the determination of the Board, in 1906, to demand that a certain proportion of the staff of recognized secondary schools shall in the future be trained;[60] and the inauguration, in 1908, of a government supported scheme for the training of teachers for secondary schools.[61]

[59] Elementary School Teachers' (superannuation) Act 1898; 61 and 62 Vict. c. 57.

[60] Regulations for Secondary Schools 1906: Teaching Staff.

[61] Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools; in Red Code 1908; p. 330.

CHAPTER III

PRELIMINARY EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The period of preliminary education for teachers in England and Wales extends to 17 or 18 years of age — the age for college entrance. This period was formerly divided into two parts: (1) the elementary school period up to 13 or 14 years of age; and (2) the period of apprenticeship extending from 13 or 14 to 17 or 18 years of age. The underlying idea of the apprenticeship or pupil-teachership system was that a practical acquaintance with the routine of the schoolroom was fundamental to a proper understanding of the theoretical aspects of the teaching profession. Not only did practice precede theory, but the practice was largely imitative of the master — the pupil-teacher was a learner of the "tricks of the trade." The newer ideal which is rapidly replacing the older one emphasizes the necessity of a broad secondary education for the prospective teacher followed by practice in teaching with adequate supervision. The laboratory method is thus superseding the apprenticeship method of training.[1]

Since the secondary school plays such a large part in the preliminary educaton of teachers, it is necessary to understand the distinction between an elementary and secondary school. In America there is a latitudinal division; in England the division is longitudinal. In America the secondary school is super-imposed on the elementary school; in England, so far as the ages of the scholars are concerned, there is much overlapping. Thus secondary education is often given in a secondary school to pupils of nine although the present tendency is to restrict it to scholars from 12 to 18 years of age. Previous to the Act of 1902, there was also a marked class distinction between scholars in the elementary and secondary schools, but with the growth of municipal secondary schools and the bursar system of teacher training the line of demarcation is rapidly disappearing.

[1] Dewey: Theory and Practice.

Up to twelve years of age the prospective teacher may have been educated either in an elementary or in a secondary (preparatory and actual) school. From twelve to sixteen years of age it is customary for him to attend a secondary school. The exceptions to this are the pupil-teachers in rural districts, the scholars of a higher elementary school, and those attending a preparatory pupil-teacher centre. At sixteen one of two courses can be followed — either to become a pupil-teacher for two years, or a bursar for one year. The bursar year may, or may not, be followed by a year as student-teacher. The significance of these terms will now be indicated.

Pupil-teacher: Pupil-teachers are "boys and girls who are receiving (a) training in teaching in a public elementary school, together with (b) instruction accepted by the Board under the official regulations."[2] They are selected by the local authority and recommended to the Board as suitable candidates for pupil-teachers. Each candidate must be healthy, of good character, and free from personal defects. He must also sign a declaration that it is his *bona fide* intention to become a teacher in a public elementary school. He must be over sixteen but not over eighteen years of age, except in country districts where fifteen is the minimum age. The normal period of recognition is for two years although it may be reduced to one year if the candidate is seventeen years of age and has satisfied the Board's requirements as to attendance both at a pupil-teacher centre and at an elementary school; and may be increased to three years in the case of pupil-teachers in rural districts. Part of the time is spent in study, part in teaching or observation of teaching. The training in the art of teaching must employ from 100 to 225 meetings[3] if the period of recognition is for one year, not more than 450 meetings if the period of recognition is for two years, or not more than 675 meetings in all if the period of recognition is for three years. Moreover, the pupil-teacher is to be free from employment at least two half-days or one whole day per week, and provision is made to prevent the time spent in training from being wholly absorbed by actual practice work. Each school employing pupil-teachers must be certified by the inspec-

[2] Regulations for the Preliminary Education of Teachers: Red Code 1909, p. 162.

[3] There are two meetings per day.

tor as suitable for training them, and no school, without special permission, may employ more than four pupil-teachers. Pupil-teachers do not count on the official staff of the school as equivalent to a number of pupils in average attendance, and their recognition may be withdrawn because of an adverse report of an inspector.[4]

Bursar: Bursars are boys and girls attending full time at a secondary school who intend in the future to become elementary school teachers and who require financial assistance to continue their education. The local authority and the principal of the secondary school, which the bursar must have attended for at least two years (to be raised to three in 1910) immediately preceding his recognition, must both endorse his candidature. The period of recognition is one year. An adverse report of an inspector may cause the withdrawal of the recognition. Like the pupil-teacher, the bursar must be between 16 and 18 years of age, must be of good character and health and free from personal defects, and must sign a declaration stating that it is his *bona fide* intention to become a teacher in an elementary school. Unlike the pupil-teacher, he does not divide his time between training and study, but spends the whole of his year as a recognized pupil of a secondary school. If he has not passed previously an examination qualifying for entrance into a training college, he pursues a course of study with that end in view. He pays no fees and in most cases receives maintenance[5] and travelling allowances from the local authority. At the end of his period of recognition he may remain at the secondary school, enter a training college, or become a student-teacher.[6]

Student-teacher: Student-teachers are boys and girls of seventeen years of age and over, of good character and health, and of freedom from personal defects, who have either been bursars, or students in regular attendance at a secondary school during the previous three or more years. The selection of student-

[4] Preliminary Education of Teachers: Red Code 1909, pp. 162–166. How to become a Teacher, 1908, pp. 4–6.

[5] The maintenance allowance may either be paid to the parent or guardian of the bursar, or may be applied by the authority in the provision for the bursar of travelling facilities, meals, or the like.

[6] How to become a Teacher; pp. 6 and 7. Preliminary Education of Teachers: Red Code 1909, pp. 175–178.

teachers is primarily in the hands of the principal of the secondary school, for he must certify that they are in character and ability fit and proper persons to be teachers in elementary schools. They must also make declarations that they desire to become elementary school teachers. The period of recognition is for one year only, but may be continued for a second year with the approval of the Board. Like pupil-teachers, they are usually employed under written agreements and must have at least two half-days a week free from employment. This free time in the case of student-teachers must be employed in furthering their general education. They may attend the elementary school as a part of the staff, in which case they count for twenty scholars in average attendance, or they may attend for the purpose of practical instruction and observation in the art of teaching. They must have passed an examination qualifying for entrance to a training college and they are not allowed to enter for any examination during their year of recognition without the express approval of the Board. Favorable reports from the inspector are necessary for their continuance in the teaching profession. At the end of the year of service they are qualified either for admission to a training college, or for recognition as an uncertified teacher.[7]

Training and Instruction of Pupil-teachers, Bursars, and Student-teachers: The preliminary education of the prospective teacher has two aspects—the academic or theoretical, and the professional training or the practical. In the case of pupil-teachers the two parts run concurrently; in the case of bursars and student-teachers the academic instruction is given during the bursary year, while the practical training is restricted to the year of student-teachership. The practical training of the bursar may, however, be reserved for the training college period. The academic instruction of pupil-teachers is for the most part given in pupil-teacher centres or centre classes, while that of the bursar is always given in recognized secondary schools. Only in isolated rural districts is the education of the pupil-teacher now wholly in the hands of the headmaster.

Pupil-teacher centres are of two types: (a) those which form an integral part of a secondary school; and (b) those which are

[7] Preliminary Education of Teachers: Red Code 1909, pp. 178–180. How to become a Teacher, pp. 7–8.

independently organized. The centre as a separate institution, which formerly was regarded as the model institution for training pupil-teachers, is now treated as the exceptional organization and is therefore rapidly disappearing.[8] A centre with an independent organization may conduct pupil-teacher preparatory classes for boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. The centre which forms an integral part of a secondary school must permit the pupil-teachers to share the ordinary corporate life of the school and must provide facilities for organized games.

The premises of all centres must be satisfactory from a hygienic point of view. For pupil-teachers living at a distance from the centre satisfactory arrangements for their care and oversight during their absence from home must be made, and proper facilities for meals, rest and recreation must be provided. The teaching staff, which must be approved by the Board, must be adequate to give satisfactory instruction in each subject of the curriculum. If the centre is for girls only, the principal and at least half of the permanent staff must be women. A mixed centre may have a man principal, but women must be largely represented on the staff. In no case may a centre be conducted for profit or farmed out to the principal; neither must the salaries of the teachers fluctuate with the differing amounts of grant received. The centre must be open for five meetings each week and must be conducted for at least thirty-six weeks each year. Preparatory pupil-teacher classes must be open for at least nine meetings each week of not less than two hours each during thirty-six or more weeks in the year. No restrictions are to be imposed on a pupil because of religious belief. The classes are limited to thirty; in no case are they permitted to exceed thirty-five. The centre is open at all times to the inspection of the Board.[9]

The curriculum of a centre and of a secondary school with bursars as pupils is dominated by the entrance examinations for colleges. The entrance examinations for colleges constitute the leaving examinations for bursars and pupil-teachers. The chief of these examinations is the preliminary examination for the

[8] Manchester held on valiantly to its separate excellent pupil-teacher centre but is now changing this.

[9] Preliminary Education of Teachers: Red Code, pp. 166–171.

elementary school teachers certificate, which, in general, is the entrance examination for all colleges not constituent parts of universities or university colleges. It is also the qualifying examination for recognition as an uncertified teacher; and is the direct successor of the Queen's Scholarship (afterward the King's) instituted in 1846 and abolished in 1907. The others are the various matriculation examinations of the universities or other examinations of equal difficulty. The preliminary certificate examination is divided into two parts, the second of which is only open to successful candidates who can furnish a satisfactory medical certificate. Part I is taken in December; Part II in April. The subjects for examination in Part I are reading, repetition, penmanship, composition, arithmetic, drawing, theory of music and needlework—the latter for girls only. In Part II all candidates are examined in three compulsory subjects, viz., English language and literature, history and geography. They may take either one or more of the following optional subjects:—elementary mathematics, elementary science, Latin, Greek, French, German, Welsh, Hebrew. Not more than two languages may be taken, and if two languages are taken, one must be Latin, Greek, French or German. Distinction is granted for marked success in any of the subjects of Part II. The Board, therefore, insists that a centre must take provision for instruction in English language, literature, and composition, history, geography, mathematics (including arithmetic), science (including practical work), reading and recitation (including voice production), music, drawing, physical exercises, a foreign language, manual work for boys, and needlework for girls. The Board also publishes suggested courses or syllabuses of the various subjects, some of them in considerable detail. The suggestions for a four year course in English is given in Appendix A. In all cases, the details of the courses are worked out by the staff of the centre, and the principal is at liberty to modify them to almost any extent he pleases.[10]

Government and local grants for preliminary education of teachers: The Board of Education is able to enforce its various regulations by means of a control over the purse. Substantial grants are made to local authorities for the purpose of educating

[10] Preliminary Education of Teachers: Red Code 1909, pp. 167, 168, 181–195. How to become a Teacher: pp. 18–32.

its prospective teachers but only on condition that the regulations are complied with. These grants may be for the purpose of providing the necessary educational facilities, or for travelling and maintenance allowances of bursars, and pupil-teachers, which are always distributed through the agency of the local authority. Government, by its acts, expresses the opinion that to relieve the financial strain during the period of training makes ultimately for the greater efficiency of the teacher and indirectly promotes the welfare of the society.

The following grants are paid by the Board on account of pupil-teachers:

(a) A grant of £7-10-0 ($37.50) for one year or £15 ($75) for two years, to the local authority on account of each pupil-teacher fulfilling attendance requirements and passing satisfactorily an examination qualifying for entrance to a training college within one year from the completion of the course. Failure in the entrance examination reduces the grant to £2-10-0 ($12.50) per capita per year. The grant is paid annually but not in full; £7 ($35) only is paid, on account, at the end of the first year. For a student in a pupil-teacher preparatory class £4 ($20), for not more than two years in all, is paid.

(b) For each pupil-teacher not in a centre £2 to £5 ($10-$25), but not exceeding £3 ($15) unless special instruction in addition to that given by the headmaster, is paid according to the nature of the instruction provided.

(c) Two pounds ($10) per pupil is paid to the council or governor of the centre towards the travelling and incidental expenses of the pupil-teachers.

(d) In cases where the qualifying examination is a matriculation examination conducted by university authorities a sum not exceeding £2 ($10) is granted to them for each pupil examined.

The following is the scale of grants for bursars:

(a) "A grant of ten pounds for each bursar increased by £5 ($25) or one-half the amount of the maintenance allowance (whichever may be the less), on account of each bursar who has during the year of bursarship received a maintenance allowance of not less than £5 ($25)."

(b) As for pupil-teachers, two pounds ($10) allowance for travelling expenses is granted.

(c) As for pupil-teachers, two pounds ($10) for expenses connected with a matriculation examination is granted.

No grants are paid by the Board on account of student-teachers.

The local authority, in addition to free education for pupil-teachers and bursars at a centre or secondary school and the maintenance allowance for bursars during their bursar year, generally offers the inducement of scholarships to prospective teachers to cover the cost of education and part maintenance during the four years of secondary school immediately preceding bursarship or pupil-teachership. Further, pupil-teachers and student-teachers receive salaries ranging from £15 to £55 ($75-$275) per year. Free education and part maintenance is thus possible to any bright boy or girl in England, who desires to follow the profession of teacher, from the age of twelve onwards.[11]

There has been much discussion in England as to the relative advantages of the pupil-teacher system on the one hand and the bursar and student-teacher system on the other. These two courses if taken in normal fashion will run as follows:[12]

Pupil-teacher system

Ages	*How engaged*
5 to 12	pupil in elementary school.
12 to 14	pupil in elementary or secondary school.
14 to 16	pupil in secondary school or pupil-teacher class.
16 to 18	pupil-teacher studying part time in centres, and teaching part time in the elementary school.

Bursar and student-teacher system

Ages	*How engaged*
5 to 12	pupil in elementary school.
12 to 16	pupil in secondary school.
16 to 17	bursar in secondary school
17 to 18	student-teacher in elementary school.

[11] For a detailed scheme of a single local authority see the London County Council, Scholarships and Training of Teachers Handbook. No. 1185: 1908. Appendix E.

[12] For the various combination courses which fulfil the Board's regulations see diagram given in Appendix B.

The advocates of the pupil-teacher system claim that the pupil-teacher receives a good practical training during his two years of service. This background of practical experience is invaluable, for the teacher-to-taught is fundamentally different from the taught-to-teacher attitude. The bursar and student-teacher system does not insure this practical experience, for the bursar may omit the student-teacher year and enter college immediately after the completion of the bursar year. The supporters of the bursar system state that the practical experience of the pupil-teacher does more harm than good, for he becomes a mechanical imitator of the devices of the successful teacher. It is better to give a sound secondary education to serve as a background for the practice which comes later. Even if the student-teacher year is missed, practical experience will be gained later in the practice school of the training college, or in the public elementary school itself. They contend that the pupil-teacher is full of devices but lacks the power to go on growing. Ultimate and permanent efficiency is sacrificed to immediate and transitory efficiency.

The arguments are undoubtedly on the side of the bursar system. The introduction of a compulsory year as student-teacher with proper supervision of the training would probably be highly beneficial to the English system of preliminary training. A year is too short for bad methods to become so ingrained as to be ineradicable. The present inadequacy of experimental and practice schools connected with the training colleges lends support, for the present, to the argument for a compulsory student-teacher year.

CHAPTER IV

TRAINING COLLEGES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The phrase "normal school" is practically obsolete in English educational terminology. The specialized institution for the training of elementary school teachers is now known as a "training college." A training college is defined by the Board as "an institution for instructing in the principles and practice of teaching persons who are preparing to become certificated teachers in public elementary schools and for supplementing their education so far as may be necessary."[1] This definition emphasizes the three aspects of the professional training of teachers, namely, academic studies, professional studies and actual practice in teaching. The idea of a training college is still further elaborated by the Board in the statement — "A training college, whether residential or day, may be either (a) a separate institution carried on solely for the training of teachers, or (b) a department of a university, or (c) a department of an institution devoted to higher education both in Arts and Science."[2]

Each training college must have a governing body responsible to the Board for the framing and submission of courses of study where the syllabuses contained in the Board's regulations are not followed, for the supervision of lodgings occupied by day students, and for the general discipline and moral supervision of all students not resident in hostels.[3] These councils or committees of management are exceedingly variable both with respect to their size and composition. In the case of university day training colleges the council of the university is usually the governing body of the college. Denominational colleges are usually governed by denominational (clerical) councils. The recent colleges established by local education authorities are

[1] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, p. 1.
[2] Ibid, p. 2.
[3] Ibid., p. 6.

managed by a special committee of the council with or without co-opted members. Since the council is essentially a lay or non-professional body the professional aspects of its work are frequently delegated to the principal of the college; the council merely reserving to itself certain supervisorial rights. The principal may also be elected the official correspondent of the college, although this office is generally reserved for the secretary to the council.

The training colleges are fairly evenly distributed and are thus easily accessible to students. No large section of the country is without one, although the south has a greater proportion than the north. The easy accessibility of the colleges brings with it certain drawbacks the chief of which is the tendency towards "inbreeding." Such a procedure is quite unnecessary in England for the government teachers' certificate is valid for life and in all parts of the country. The desire for the wider culture, which a different environment gives, leads many students consciously to select those colleges most remote from their homes. In this way London with its plethora of training colleges has attracted large numbers of northern students for many generations. The recent introduction of the local city training college will inevitably tend to exaggerate the segregation of teachers in various districts, although the Board has declared against a service limit which many localities have tried to impose.

Training colleges may be classified in various ways, the most usual being that of "residential" and "day training" colleges. Residential colleges are colleges in which all or some of the students attending the college reside; day training colleges are those in which the students do not reside. Only those recognized students residing in a residential college are described as residential students; other students even though attending residential college, are known as day students. Day students may, however, reside in a hostel and they are then known as hostel students. Other classifications that are recognized in the statistics of the Board are (a) according to the sex of the students — men's, women's, and co-educational colleges; (b) according to the authority providing the institution — colleges controlled by a university, or by a college which is a constituent part of a university, or by other university colleges, or by local education authorities, or by the various religious organizations; (c) according to

the religious connections of the college — Church of England, Wesleyan, Roman Catholics, or undenominational.[4]

The day training college authorities are compelled to make suitable provision for the board and lodging of all students under their charge.[5] This provision may take the form of a hostel or an adequate number of supervised lodgings.

Men students who do not reside in a residential college must reside either (1) in a recognized hostel, or (2) with their parents or guardians, or (3) in lodgings licensed and inspected by the authorities of the college or of any institution of which the college forms part. Similar regulations were once in force for women; after August 1910, however, no woman will be allowed to live in licensed lodgings unless suitable accommodations cannot be otherwise provided. The modern tendency is to make the "lodging rules" more stringent than heretofore. The following rules in force at the University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff, are fairly typical.

Rules for Men

"A daily railway journey of more than twenty minutes duration in either direction cannot be sanctioned.

No student may reside in a house which is not on the list of registered lodging houses kept in the Registry.

The college reserves the right to take steps to ascertain that the sanitary condition of the lodgings is satisfactory.

The lodgings must be approved by the head of the men's training department.

The lodgings are subject to inspection by the head of the department.

No student may remove to new lodgings without previously obtaining the consent of the head of the department.

No lodgings are approved unless each room is large enough to allow 65 square feet of floor space, and 750 cubic feet of air space for each student.

The lodging-house keeper must, besides conforming to the declaration made on the ordinary lodging-house form, send the necessary weekly statement to the head of the department, showing the times at which the student came in at night, in those cases in which the student did not return to his rooms before eleven P.M. (Forms and stamped addressed envelopes will be provided.)

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[4] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8, pp. 245–6.

[5] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. 4–7.

Students who intend to be absent from their lodging for a whole night must obtain previous permission from the head of the department."[6]

The rules for the women students require all who do not live with their parents to reside in Aberdare Hall, the hostel for women students.

The list of registered lodgings for the colleges are usually obtained by circulating registration blanks and having the householders fill them up. Some of the blanks, e.g., that in use at Goldsmiths' Training College, London, are quite elaborate in form. Many of them indicate the probable amounts the students will be able to pay for the board and lodging. In London the cost is estimated at £30 ($150) per year; in the provinces cheaper residence may be obtained.

The growth of the day training colleges has stimulated the erection of hostels. Hostels for women will, in the future, be an essential part of the equipment of every day training college where women are received. The English hostels are different in several particulars from the American dormitories. In the first place, they are not merely lodgings for a large number of students; they invariably provide both board and lodging for a rather small number of students. They are usually situated in the midst of extensive grounds and thus afford facilities for athletics and other outdoor exercises. Tutorial assistance, in addition to the usual tuition received in college classes, is usually provided. A healthy corporate life is thus encouraged, and in the case of hostels which are not restricted to students in training opportunities for a wider culture are given. The official regulations of the Board state that no hostels for less than ten students will be recognized. Each hostel is to have a responsible governing body who will conduct it under a scheme which has received endorsement by the Board. The scale of fees must be sanctioned by the Board and no discriminations are to be made against teachers in training because of the government grants for maintenance which are made to them. The premises must be satisfactory from a hygienic point of view. The principal and staff must meet with the approval of the Board. Hos-

[6] Prospectus for Men, Session 1909–10, of the University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire.

tels newly recognized cannot impose any religious tests whatsoever upon teachers or governing body. Those founded prior to 1907 may provide distinctive religious teaching upon the written requests of the students, but such instruction must be provided from funds other than grants made by the Board or any local authority.[7] In 1907-8 there were in England and Wales twenty-seven hostels providing an accommodation for 987 students. Of this number nine with accommodation for 457 students were non-denominational hostels provided by local education authorities.[8] The cost of living in a hostel is generally greater than in private lodgings. In general the cost to men is about £50 ($250), of which £40 ($200) is provided by the government in the form of a grant; the cost to women is about £40 ($200), of which £25 ($125) is covered by the government grant.[9]

It was pointed out in a preceding chapter (Chapter II) that the earlier grants for training colleges of the Committee of Council on Education were first utilized for the establisment, and afterwards for the maintenance, of the institutions for which they were made. Further, it was pointed out that since 1905 the government grants towards the establishment of training colleges and hostels by local authorities had been an amount not exceeding 75% of all capital expenditure incurred in providing both sites and buildings. In order to prevent local authorities from erecting buildings at an excessive cost the Board in the regulations for the training of elementary teachers for 1909 have published a scale, which in no case will be exceeded, based on the average 75% cost of each student place provided. The scale[10] is as follows:

[7] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. 4–7.
[8] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8, Table 109.
[9] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, Chap. XI.
[10] Ibid., Chap. XIII.

DESCRIPTION OF PREMISES	Limit of grant for each place provided
1. Residential training college in which provision is made for the instruction and residence of the students in a single block	£195 ($975)
2. Residential training college in which provision is made for the instruction and residence of the students in separate blocks:	
(a) Educational block	£75 ($375)
(b) Residential block	£135 ($675)
3. Day training college without provision for the residence of students	£90 ($450)
4. Day training college erected as part of a scheme involving the provision of hostels	£75 ($375)
5. Hostel	£135 ($675)

Training colleges are maintained for the most part by grants made by the Board on behalf of the students in residence. The other sources of income are the fees of the students and, in the case of denominational colleges, donations from religious organizations or subscriptions from patrons. Donations and subscriptions form a very small part of the income of the college. The grants of the Board are distributed according to the following scale: "(a) In respect of resident students, grants at the rate of £53 ($265) for men or £38 ($190) for women are payable to the governing body of the training college; (b) In respect of other recognized students, grants at the rate of £13 ($65) are payable to the governing body of the training college." The grants are paid in five instalments, four during the session and the balance as soon as possible after the close of the session.

The four essential and universal admittance requirements for a training college are:

(a) Success in the preliminary examination for the teachers' certificate, or in one of its numerous recognized equivalents.

(b) Production of a satisfactory health certificate.

(c) Giving an undertaking to teach for a given term of years.

(d) Must have attained the age of seventeen years; the normal age is eighteen years.

Since the present college accommodation is inadequate to meet the demands for training, and since many of the colleges have religious connections of a very definite nature, each college, within the limits imposed by the Board in its regulations, is

allowed to make certain additional regulations to insure itself against the acceptance of undesirable students. The number of students which a training college can accommodate is fixed by the Board after a careful consideration of the premises and faculty of the college. This number may not be exceeded and, since the applications are generally double or treble the accommodation, an elaborate system of registering candidates has been evolved. Candidates for the preliminary examination for certificate or its equivalent, or those who have successfully passed such examinations, are permitted to file an application for admission to a training college not earlier than October 1st of the year preceding their possible entrance. In most cases a registration fee not exceeding 10s. ($2.50) is demanded of each candidate. This fee is returned in case of failure, but is credited to the account of the successful candidates. A further entrance fee of £20 to £25 ($100-$125) is demanded of residential students on taking up residence in a residential college. The register of candidates is filed in the order in which they are received but this does not mean that candidates are offered places in this order. Candidates may be refused admittance on various grounds, but for valid reasons only. Married women are not admitted. Deficiency in education, residence outside a given area, or personal defects which would militate against the success of the candidate in the schools are considered valid reasons; rejection on the ground of social antecedents is not allowed. In all cases the register must state the reasons for rejection. In denominational colleges fifty per cent of the places may be reserved for members of a particular religious persuasion. Some colleges impose a religious examination upon the applicants and all colleges connected with the Church of England emphasize the importance of communion, confirmation, and success in scripture examinations. In some colleges a certificate for religious knowledge is required. In order to help colleges in their selection of candidates the Board of Education supplies them with their list of candidates in order of merit as placed in the lists of the preliminary examination. If the college authorities demand additional examinations or interviews with its candidates the fares and other expenses must be paid by them.[11]

[11] Circular 570. Admission of candidates to training colleges. Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. 8–11.

The authorities of the training colleges are required by the government to take great pains to obtain most accurate information as to the health of the candidates for admission. This is secured by requiring each candidate to produce a medical certificate of the form prescribed by the college. A further examination takes place before recognition is given by the Board. This recognition may be withdrawn upon adverse reports in subsequent annual medical examinations during the period of residence in college.

Another important feature of the admission requirements is the "form of undertaking" to be executed by students before they are formally admitted as recognized students. The form of undertaking for resident students is given in Appendix C. Prior to August 1905 the student signed a declaration stating that it was his *bona fide* intention to teach in any type of school except a government inspected secondary school. This declaration was signed by the student during his minority and was often broken because it carried no legal obligation with it. To remedy this state of affairs the Board now requires the student to bind himself, in return for the grants paid for his training, to complete the course of training and subsequently to teach, for seven years in the case of a man, and for five in the case of a woman, in any of the schools or colleges under the jurisdiction of the Board. Secondary schools are now included in this category. Failing the conclusion of such service the student binds himself to repay to the Board such proportionate part of the cost of his training as is represented by the uncompleted years of service. Such a declaration as this prevents the utilization of the teaching profession as a stepping stone to other professions—a method of procedure which is all too common in America.

The social status of the teachers in training for elementary schools is indicated by the occupations of their parents. Most of them are the sons and daughters of the better class of artisans and retail traders. An increasing number are being drawn from the ranks of the professional classes. Especially is this true with respect to the three year students taking degree courses in the day training colleges of the universities. The following table gives the occupation of the parents of bursars (intending teachers) in 1907-8 for the whole of England, and of the students

accepted by or applying for admission to the Day Training College of Manchester University 1909-11.[12]

TABLE II

Occupation of parents	Bursars				Students in Manchester University			
	637 men		1408 women		123 men		172 women	
	No. of men	Percentage to total No.	No. of women	Percentage to total No.	No. of men	Percentage to total No.	No. of women	Percentage to total No.
Teachers	50	7.8	85	6.0	10	8.5	18	11.0
Ministers of Religion	5	0.8	8	0.6	7	6.0	3	2.0
Members of other professions	12	1.9	72	5.1	7	6.0	22	13.0
Farmers	9	1.4	50	3.6	1	1.0	2	1.5
Wholesale Traders	25	3.9	80	5.7	3	3.0	8	5.0
Retail Traders	115	18.1	199	14.1	14	12.0	7	4.5
Contractors	11	1.7	34	2.4	2	2.0	5	3.0
Minor Officials	31	4.9	75	5.4	7	6.0	17	10.0
Commercial travelers and agents	30	4.7	74	5.3	6	5.0	15	9.0
Clerks	41	6.4	130	9.2	11	9.0	15	9.0
Postmen, Policemen, Seamen and Soldiers	17	2.7	38	2.7	2	2.0	2	1.5
Domestic and other Servants	30	4.7	57	4.0	10	8.5	2	1.5
Foremen	16	2.5	30	2.1	...	...	13	8.0
Artisans	174	27.3	308	21.9	28	23.0	20	12.0
Laborers	28	4.4	45	3.2	7	6.0	2	1.5
No occupation given (chiefly widows)	43	6.8	123	8.7	8	7.0	21	12.5

While the figures are too small to make dogmatic statements about them, they undoubtedly indicate that the day training college secures students of a distinctly higher social grade than does the residential college. Dr. Salisbury in a report of a visit to the Schools of Great Britain, October—December, 1908, probably sums up the situation when he states that "the teachers in elementary schools are chiefly drawn from the lower middle class; they are the children of small shop-keepers, the better class of

[12] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8, Table 62; and records of the University of Manchester.

artisans, policemen, etc., including schoolmasters. The sons and daughters of professional men or men of large business interests very rarely become teachers, and then only in the secondary schools. A "lady" would not descend lower than this. Nevertheless, and notwithstanding their lack of social polish and station, these elementary teachers seem to me to be of the moral bone and sinew of present-day England."[13]

The teaching staffs of the training colleges are being constantly improved owing to the persistent supervision of the Board. In order to obtain recognition as an institution for the training of teachers "the teaching staff must be such as to provide adequately for each of the following branches of study: (1) education; (2) English language and literature; (3) history and geography; (4) mathematics; (5) science. In training colleges in Wales provision must also be made for the teaching of (6) Welsh." Further qualifications required of the staff are that at least two-thirds of them must be graduates of a reputable university. If the qualifications fall below this standard fixed by the Board alternate vacancies, at least, in the non-graduate portion of the staffs of existing colleges are to be filled by graduates. Before an appointment to the staff is made the fullest possible details must be submitted to the Board, which then sanctions or disapproves the prospective appointment. The Board may cause a teacher to be removed from a faculty for inefficiency as a teacher, but this is done, if ever, only on the rarest occasions. Each training college must have a principal. Formerly, women's colleges had men principals, but from 1908 onwards only women will be appointed to those posts.[14] The principals of denominational colleges are often clergymen in Holy Orders. Their professional qualifications in some cases, it must be confessed, are not of a very high order. In 1908, the following qualifications were held by the members of the various training college staffs in England and Wales:[15]

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[13] Bulletin of the State Normal School, Whitewater, Wisconsin, April, 1909.

[14] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. 2–4.

[15] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8, Table 110.

	Men	Women
(a) Certificated teachers (graduates)		
(1) trained	56	45
(2) untrained	20	21
(b) Certificated teachers (not graduates)		
(1) trained	27	104
(2) untrained	2	11
(c) Graduates who were not certificated teachers	102	125
(d) Other teachers	8	69
(e) Total	215	375

It will thus be seen from the table that 83.7% of the men and 50.9% of the women hold university degrees.

The teachers comprising a training college faculty are generally called lecturers, although such titles as tutor, governess, demonstrator, etc., are far from uncommon. One person is designated the master (or mistress) of method and to him is delegated much of the professional work, such as the lectures on general and special method, the supervision of practice teaching and so forth. The teachers lecture in cap and gown and there is much greater deference shown to them by the students than is the case in American normal schools. Still, there is usually an excellent friendly feeling between teachers and students which is fostered in the case of residential colleges and hostels by the living of a more or less communal life.

There are five classes of students recognized by the Board:

(a) Two year students.
(b) One year students.
(c) Certificated students.
(d) Three year students.
(e) Third year students.

(a) The majority of the students in the training colleges are two year students. They must be at least eighteen years of age on entrance, except in the case of those students who have been in attendance at a secondary school during the previous three years. In such cases the age of entrance may be reduced to seventeen. They pursue a course of study which ensures a continuance of their general academic studies and also provides for their training along professional lines. During the course they are not allowed to sit for external examinations. The course

leads up to the final examination for the teachers' certificate or its substitutes as approved by the Board. The substitutes may be (1) examinations conducted by a university but not constituting a recognized stage in the course for a degree; (2) examinations which conform to the rules laid down by the Board conducted by a joint examining body of which not more than one-half are members of the training college faculty; (3) for specially brilliant students who have passed one of certain qualifying examinations before admission to college, an examination leading to a university degree may be substituted, in part, for the ordinary certificate examination of the Board. Certain rights of supervision are retained by the Board in all cases of alternative examinations.[16]

(b) One year students must be nineteen years of age and must have passed the final degree examination of any university in the British Isles, or its equivalent.[17] The year is devoted mainly to professional training but any deficiencies in those subjects which form an essential part of the elementary school curriculum must be made up. At the end of the course they are tested in a similar manner to two year students in the subjects which have formed part of the course for the year.[18]

(c) Persons who have passed the certificate examination of the Board but have not been trained in a college may enter as certificated students. The object of the course of study pursued is to improve their general education and to supplement their previous experience by carefully chosen professional studies. The usual period of practice teaching, and any subject in which they have received satisfactory instruction before entering the training college, may be omitted. They may not study for any examination which leads towards a university degree. At the end of the course they submit to tests exactly as do the one year students.[19]

(d) Three year students constitute an increasingly important section of the body of teachers in training. Only education departments which are constituent parts of universities are permitted to receive students of this type, and the Board may re-

[16] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, Chap. II.
[17] Ibid, Appendix A. (III.)
[18] Ibid, Chap. V.
[19] Ibid, Chap. IV.

quire that the number of three year students admitted shall not exceed a definite proportion of the total student body. The age of admittance is eighteen years, but in the case of students with a three years secondary school education immediately preceding admittance, the age may be lowered to seventeen years. The student must have passed the matriculation examination of the university previous to entrance. His course of study is extremely arduous for not only must he take the professional work connected with his training but also the ordinary work connected with his degree. The degree in England is usually granted at the end of the third year; only in case of students studying for honors are four years allowed. Unless satisfactory progress is made towards the degree the student must leave the institution. The time-table difficulty is a serious one for the degree subjects usually take precedence in the very much overcrowded schedules. A few universities recognize professional work in education as part of the requirements for the degree. This eases the strain of double work somewhat but the university authorities would be well advised to proceed further along these lines. The student is medically examined at the beginning of each year and the officer must certify that the student is strong enough to continue the course without undue strain. An excellent plan for relieving the strain is in operation in Manchester and other universities. Following the regulations set out in section 45 (e) the three year student, with the exception of the usual practice teaching in the summer vacation, is allowed to take nothing but the academic work for his degree during the first two years of his course in the training college. This, with the addition of a year in the university taken at his own expense, completes the requirements for the degree. The post-graduate third year (fourth year as university student) is wholly devoted to the study of education. This plan gives excellent results. The course of study for three year students is modified in several important particulars. The degree course is accepted in place of the academic work, provided the student on the completion of the course has at some period received adequate instruction in English, mathematics, history, geography and elementary science. The minimum period of practice teaching for three year students is extended from six to eight weeks. They are certified at the end of the course if they have passed

the final examination for the degree and have satisfied his Majesty's inspector in regard to proficiency in the usual professional subjects.

(c) Third year students are the exceptionally bright two year students who, on the completion of their course of study, are granted by the Board an additional year of training. This third year of training may be taken either in England or Wales, or abroad. If taken at home the student must either pursue courses leading to the final examination for a degree or in professional training for special work in the public schools. In the latter case preparation is usually made for the teaching of the deaf or defective. If the third year is taken abroad the student may prepare himself to become a teacher of modern languages, or he may take up the study of a foreign educational system. The latter course cannot be followed unless the student has had two years, and not more than four, of successful teaching practice subsequent to the completion of his college course.

The cost to students varies with the different colleges.[20] For residential students the cost for the two years does not necessarily exceed £30 ($150). The remainder of the cost for board, lodging, tuition and laundry is covered by the grants of the Board which are made to the governing body of the college. Day students receive grants from the Board which are paid to them through the agency of the college. These grants are to enable them to pay hostel charges, or charges for board and lodging. For hostel students or students resident in colleges of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge grants at the rate of £40 ($200) for men and £25 ($125) for women are made. Other day students receive grants of £25 ($125) and £20 ($100) for men and women respectively. Any additional expenses must be met from private sources.[21]

The course of study for training colleges with a normal course of two years may include the following subjects:

(1) English language, literature and composition.
(2) History and geography.
(3) Elementary mathematics.
(4) Hygiene.

[20] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, Appendix K.

[21] Ibid, Chap. XI.

(5) Theory of music.
(6) The principles of teaching.
(7) Elementary science.
(8) The practice of teaching.
(9) Reading and repetition.
(10) Drawing.
(11) Needlework (for women).
(12) Singing.
(13) Physical training.
(14) Manual instruction (for men).

The subjects are divided into two parts—the first six in which the students are examined individually, and the last eight in which the proficiency of the college as a whole is tested during the visits of inspectors. Drawing, manual instruction, and physical training may be omitted by those students who have had satisfactory training in those branches before entering college. Students with no ear for music are excused from singing. Not more than two optional subjects from the following list may also be included in the course:

(1) English literature.
(2) Education.
(3) History.
(4) Geography.
(5) Welsh language and literature.
(6) French.
(7) German.
(8) Italian.
(9) Spanish.
(10) Latin.
(11) Greek.
(12) Hebrew.
(13) Mathematics.
(14) Physics.
(15) Chemistry.
(16) Botany.
(17) Rural science.
(18) Housecraft (for women only).
(19) Advanced drawing.
(20) Music.

The syllabuses of the optional subjects are of a more advanced character than those of the ordinary subjects. The examination papers set in them at the end of the second year are approximately equal in difficulty to those set in corresponding subjects at the Intermediate Arts and Science Examinations of London University. This, according to American standards, would be equivalent to an examination set by reputable colleges at the end of the junior year. For those students studying for a university degree, special courses may be recognized.

Certificated students, in general, omit the practice of teaching, reading and repetition, drawing, needlework and singing.

One year students omit English language, literature, and composition, history and geography, elementary mathematics and elementary science.

Three year students omit hygiene, physical training, manual instruction. The following are also omitted if it can be shown that the student has received previous satisfactory instruction in them:—English language, literature and composition, history and geography, elementary science and elementary mathematics. The degree courses cover the bulk of the academic work required by the Board.

The Board publish a considerable number of alternative courses of study for the majority of the subjects given in the ordinary and the optional lists. The training colleges are not required to adopt any of them, but if they do not they must produce a scheme of equal or superior merit. The colleges with a normal course usually adopt one or the other of the Board's syllabuses.[22] For example, St. Mary's Hall, Cheltenham, for the year 1910, chose, where alternatives were given, the following schemes of the Board: English language, literature and composition—Scheme IV; History and geography—Scheme II; Principles of teaching—Syllabuses Nos. II and III. In the optional subjects courses were given to meet the Board's requirements in the following: English literature, education, French, Latin, mathematics, chemistry, and advanced drawing.

The scope of the various ordinary courses will now be indicated.

(1) *English language, literature and composition:* Four alternative courses are provided. Each course is divided into three

[2] The various syllabuses are given in Appendices C and D of the Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909.

parts: (a) works for general reading which always include a play of Shakespeare, an anthology (a list of anthologies suitable to the course is given), and various readings in standard literature; (b) readings for detailed study which include a play of Shakespeare and selections from Bacon's Essays; (c) an outline course on the structure of the English language, the object of which is to impart a knowledge and understanding of broad principles rather than detailed information.

(2) *History and geography:* Seven alternative schemes are given. Six of them emphasize the history, the seventh lays stress on geography. English history is most frequently included although Scheme V run as follows: "The history of British settlements in America down to and including the establishment of the Federal Constitution of the United States." The geography scheme has sociological aspects.

(3) *Elementary mathematics:* More mathematics is required of the men than of the women. Algebra and arithmetic have single schemes provided; geometry may be studied according to Euclid or along the lines of practical geometry. The latter is more generally favored.

(4) *Hygiene:* A syllabus for twelve lectures is given. The topics included are the skeleton and muscular system, the digestive system, the respiratory and circulatory systems, the excretory system, the nervous system, sense organs, sanitation of the school, disabilities and diseases of children, and medical inspection of schools.

(5) *Theory of music:* Both sol-fa and staff notation are studied.

(6) *Principles of teaching:* Six alternative syllabuses are presented. The last three deal respectively with the teaching of the blind, deaf and mentally defective. Syllabus No. 1 runs as follows:

"(a) School-buildings and equipment; the bearing of various types of school building on the work of the school; sanitary conditions and supervision.

(b) The specific work of the head teacher, the classification of scholars, and the distribution of the staff in various types of school, e.g., a small country school, large urban school, etc.

(c) School records. Subjects of the curriculum and the reasons for their inclusion; their relative importance, and the possi-

bility of connecting one with another. The variations in curricula and time-tables necessary to meet the needs of scholars of various ages and various types of school. Special methods of instruction suitable to older and younger children respectively. The transition from infant classes to the work of older children.

(d) Discipline and self-discipline. The means of bringing the influence of the school to bear upon the home and after-life of the scholars.

(e) The place of the elementary school in a national system of education.

(a) Speech: Means of securing distinct articulation; use of stories; continuous speech and written composition; reading; poetry and singing.

(b) Manual occupations, including drawing; their educational value and right use in connection with other subjects; writing; domestic occupations — e.g., gardening, needlework, etc.: normal value of this training.

(c) General physical training, including games; laws of health.

(d) Nature study: Means of developing interest in nature; animal and plant life; elements of geography.

(e) Number and elementary mathematics; suitable methods and apparatus.

(f) History: national traditions and social life."[23]

(7) *Elementary science:* No scheme is prescribed by the Board. An elaborate syllabus for rural science is given but this, of course, is an optional subject. The scheme for rural science is a deliberate attempt on the part of the Board to cater to the needs of the rural teacher.[24] It includes (a) plant life; (b) field botany; (c) gardening: the soil; and (d) work to be done in the garden.

(8) *The practice of teaching:* The authorities of training colleges are recommended not to place more than ten practice teachers under the charge of one supervisor and to make the practice as continuous as possible. "Criticism" or "Open Lessons" are to be given and students are to be exempted from lectures and class work during the period of practice.

(9) *Reading and repetition:* The practice in reading is obtained by reading aloud from the books studied in the literature

[23] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. 73–4.

[24] The difficulty of staffing rural continuation schools is treated at length in the Report of the Consultative Committee on attendance, compulsory or otherwise, at continuation schools; 1909, pp. 191–6.

period. Not less than 200 lines from standard authors are to be learned by heart. In Welsh colleges 100 lines may be in Welsh.

(10) *Drawing:* Great freedom is permitted. Blackboard drawing and drawing from memory are included.

(11) *Needlework* (for women) is of a very practical nature.

(12) *Singing:* Includes choral singing, sight reading from both notations, etc.

(13 and 14) The syllabus for physical training is under revision. No scheme for *manual training* is given.

Shortened courses of study may be taken in English, history and geography, provided the time so gained is devoted to practice on class teaching.

The curricula of the English training colleges in comparison with those of American normal schools indicate a greater emphasis on literature and perhaps mathematics, while there is considerably less attention paid to science, history of education, and psychology. In many training colleges neither psychology, as such, nor history of education finds a place. England would do well to pay greater attention to genetic psychology and to the observation of child life. English teachers, in general, know more subject-matter than American teachers but they do not teach it in so efficient a manner. This is probably a result of of the very unpedagogical methods of teaching employed in the colleges. The lecture method is almost invariably followed. The students take notes, get them up, and reproduce them subsequently in examinations. The use of libraries by the students is much less effective than in America. This is due to inadequate library facilities.

The texts employed in colleges are varied. For all subjects except education texts by English authors are for the most part employed. For education, American texts are very frequently used. James's "Talks to Teachers," Bagley's "Educative Process," Kirkpatrick's "Fundamentals of Child Study," Monroe's "History of Education" and the various educational essays of Dewey are as familiar to the English three year students as to the graduates of an average two year American normal school. The books are bought by the students and, in spite of the comparative cheapness of English books, bills amounting to £8 ($40)

or more are not infrequently accumulated in the course of the two or three years.

The arrangement of the time-tables is very interesting. In residential colleges the work of the day often commences at seven a. m. In general, lectures are given during the morning; the afternoon is devoted to games, and the evening to study with or without supervision. Six periods per day of fifty minutes duration would seem to be the norm for English training colleges.

The method of conducting the criticism lessons and the practice teaching in the English training colleges leaves much to be desired. The ideal plan would be to have at least three schools in organic connection with the college. The first of these, the model school, would be used to illustrate the best methods of teaching that are at present known. It would, of necessity, have the best teachers obtainable and would not be used for practice teaching or for experimentation. It would, however, utilize the results of the experiments carried out in the experimental school. So far as possible, the school would have a normal organization with respect to such details as size of classes, course of study, and so forth. The second school would be a practice school. This school would be large with numerous classes so that the children would not be overwhelmed with the multiplicity of teachers. Each class would be in charge of a strong teacher who would give unity and continuity to the work of the class as a whole. The third school would be the experimental school. This would be taught by scientific students of education preferably university graduates with teaching experience. Here valuable educational data would be accumulated and new methods of teaching scientifically investigated. The results of the investigations would be published from time to time.

At the present time no English training college has a model school, as described above, attached to it. In a few places a practicing school called a model school is attached; in still fewer places there are combined experimental and practicing schools called demonstration schools under the control of the colleges. Of these the most noted is the demonstration school of the University of Manchester. The London Day Training College and other colleges are gradually securing the full control of schools for practice. The Board has recently recognized the value of

demonstration schools, for the present regulations[25] state that "No training college, not already recognized, will be considered as completely equipped without a demonstration school, and the Board will require, where such a school is not established, to be satisfied that circumstances make it impossible. A demonstration school must fulfil the following conditions:

"(1) It must be either a public elementary school or other school approved for this purpose by the Board, and must be organized and taught in accordance with the provisions of Chapter I of the code of regulations for public elementary schools.

(2) It must be closely associated with the training college for the purpose of illustrating the most approved and successful methods of school organization, discipline and instruction.

(3) The conditions of association must be such as to allow the governing body of the training college to exercise effective influence over the details of organization (including staffing), discipline, and instruction, and to secure that these shall be the best available."

The lack of practice schools has not been severely felt in the past, for all the students in the college were teachers experienced in teaching. With the introduction of the bursary system, which makes it possible to enter college without previous teaching experience, the need for further facilities for practice teaching has become very acute. The Board requires that in the case of students who have had no practical experience previous to entering the training college, the period of practice in class teaching (six weeks for two year students) must be extended to three months.[26]

The usual method of giving practical experience is by means of open or criticism lessons and by continuous practice in teaching a group of scholars in the elementary school. This teaching may be done during the session or in the summer vacation. The former method is usual for residential colleges, the latter for the day training colleges. If large colleges are located in small towns the practice teaching must be accomplished in some neighboring town. Thus, the students of Bangor Normal College do their practice teaching for three weeks in September in

[25] Article 4 (f), 1909 regulations.

[26] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. 15 and 33.

the city of Liverpool some eighty or ninety miles away. In like manner, the Bangor day training students do practice teaching in Wrexham; the Chester students in Birkenhead; the Ripon students in York and Scarborough; and the Warrington students in Manchester and Liverpool. Much valuable time and energy is lost in this way. When the time lost by supervisors in tramping from one school to another is taken into account, a good case for practising schools under the immediate control of the college can be made out on the score of economy alone. The periods of practice teaching are for one, two or three weeks at a time. The criticism lessons are given before the whole class or some portion of it. Most colleges have special rooms arranged in gallery form for the purposes of holding criticism lessons. The scholars are placed in front; the students sit behind and take notes. The lesson may be criticized immediately after its completion. The more usual course, however, is to delay the criticism for at least a day. The conduct of the criticism is very varied; it may be restricted to discussion under four large heads—material, method, teacher, and scholars, as is the case in Manchester; or it may run to the minutest details, as is the case in St. Mark's College, Chelsea. Too many details are apt to lead the student astray; they emphasize unimportant points and neglect the essentials.

Because the work of the Education Department of the University of Manchester is representative of the better type of work for the professional training of teachers that is being done in England an account of it is here given.

The University of Manchester is one of the newer co-educational universities. The education department, organized in 1890, is a constituent part of the university. The majority of the students in the department are three year students who are studying for the bachelor's degree in Arts or Science. A few women students are admitted as two year students, in which case they receive special training as kindergarten teachers. The department is fortunate in the possession of a practising school—the Fielden Demonstration School — founded by Mrs. Fielden who also endowed the chair of education in the University. It is organized as a kindergarten, elementary and higher elementary school. There are ten classes, each with twenty pupils. A com-

petent teacher is in charge of each class. In this way continuity of instruction is secured.

The college students in the first year take courses in child study and school hygiene. One meeting per week is devoted to observation of children or experimental work in the Fielden School. Definite problems are assigned to the students before the observation period so that no uncertainty exists and no vague aimless observations are made. Such problems as the following are given: (1) make a stenographic report of all the words a given child uses in an oral composition lesson and classify them under the various parts of speech; (2) make a chronological report of all the physical actions of a particular child in a ten-minute period; (3) test the eyesight and hearing of a number of children; (4) make records of the height and weight of the children, and so forth. In addition, individual records of the children are kept by the students. One pupil is assigned to each student, who keeps a continuous record during the whole of his three years at college. This observational and experimental work is the practical work connected with the lectures and discussions on child study.

The first year professional course is not complete until three weeks of continuous teaching in some elementary school of the City of Manchester has been performed. This takes place in July. Not more than six students are sent to a school. The practice teaching is supervised by the different members of the staff, but the headmaster of the school has charge of the students and considers them, for the time being, as constituent parts of his school staff. Good feeling exists between the City Education Authorities and the University Education Department, and so far the scheme has worked very smoothly. This short period of apprenticeship type of teaching seems to give good results; students learn anew the externals of discipline and acquire power in adapting themselves to unfamiliar conditions.

During the second year the students attend courses in general and special methods. As in the first year, the demonstration school is used as the laboratory. Lessons in illustration are given by members of the college faculty or by the class teachers of the school before the whole of the students. These lessons are discussed later in class to bring out the different points in method.

Observation of work in special schools is also a feature of the courses in special methods. The July practice teaching is repeated in this year.

Lectures on Principles of Teaching and History of Education are attended in the third year of the course. The student now teaches for the first time in the demonstration school. A subject is chosen by the student and is taught by him at all meetings of the class in that subject for the whole of one term (three months); a second subject is taught during the second term. This teaching is considered by the Board the equivalent of two weeks' continuous teaching. Careful lesson plans are prepared beforehand by the student and are criticized by the supervisor. When satisfactory, they are entered in the class lesson book in that subject. A diary made in the same book shows the deviations which are made in the actual teaching of the subject from the plans prepared previously. Throughout the whole of the courses, constant efforts are made to link up the theory of the lectures with the practice of the schoolroom.

The certification of students in the training colleges is largely dependent upon (1) an examination in academic subjects and (2) inspection by the Board in the professional subjects of the curriculum. The examination may be given by the Board or by some joint examining body approved by the Board. The degree of a university may be substituted for the academic examination of the Board by all day training colleges with three year students. "Distinction" is granted for special proficiency in academic subjects as shown by the Board's examination. The professional subjects of the course, namely, practice of teaching, reading and repetition, drawing, needlework, singing, physical training and elementary science are inspected by the Board. The method of inspection includes (a) visitation of the college at any reasonable time by an inspector for the purpose of oversight of the methods of instruction, course of study, suitability of premises, etc.; (b) judging of the grades given for proficiency of the students in various subjects by the training college faculty. The latter is done as follows:—Before the end of the second year (in some special cases the third) the principal of the training college submits lists of his students divided up into five groups according to their proficiency in each professional subject. The lowest group (E) are the failures. The inspec-

tors at the time of the college visitation, instead of examining each student individually in all subjects as was formerly the case, select samples, as it were, from among the students and give these separate examinations. The college standards are judged by the marks obtained by the selected students. If a judgment cannot be made in this way, records and samples of the work of the students must be submitted to the inspector. It will thus be seen that part of the certification is in the hands of the training college faculties; the inspectors simply insure that the privilege is not abused and that reasonably high standards are maintained. Graduation from college in the American sense of satisfactory completion of a given number of courses is absolutely unknown in England and would be foreign to all custom and precedent. At the end of the course the Board publishes, in alphabetical order under each training college, a list of students who have qualified as certificated teachers. The list indicates: (a) the length of the period of training in each case; (b) the result of the approved final examination; and (c) the subjects in which the student has gained distinction. The individual training colleges may also publish lists of their students in classes or in order of merit, but for these the Board assumes no responsibility. The college list is usually published in the annual report of the college.[27]

The kind of life the student leads differs with the different types of college. In the day training colleges, the pressure of work makes it almost impossible to lead a normal student life. Only in the case of hostel students is the right kind of corporate life pursued. In residential colleges the situation is otherwise, for the students enjoy a community life in a very real sense.

Many of the buildings of the residential colleges are old and were built in many instances before the spirit of the middle ages had entirely passed away. They are often surrounded by high walls. The huge doors and Gothic architecture seem entirely congruous to the semi-monastic type of life the students are forced to lead. Yet the life is a very happy one. The common room which is an outstanding feature of all the training colleges is the centre of the social life of the college. It is always comfortably and often luxuriously appointed. The introduction

[27] Regulations for the Training of Elementary Teachers, 1909, pp. XIX., 16, 20, 34, 35, 39 and 40.

of the common room idea both for students and faculty, would add greatly to the spirit of the social life in American normal schools. The sleeping accommodation is on the cubicle plan. In a few cases the women students assist with the minor domestic duties of the establishment. Thus at Edge Hill the students are required to sweep, dust and tidy the cubicles every morning and to keep the crockery, water bottle and glass clean. Each student, in rotation, is required to undertake the following duties for a week—to sweep the corridor and to change the water in the fire bucket daily. The dining room where the students and staff meet for four meals each day, is another feature of the English college. The food is plain but nutritious. Beer is served at meals in a few of the older residential colleges for men. The staff usually dine at a raised table. In this and other ways there is a greater formality than there would be in similar situations in America, but this does not preclude the existence of a very real and healthy friendship between the students and staff. Many day colleges provide an excellent mid-day dinner for their students. At Goldsmiths' College, London, the students are compelled to take the excellent dinner which is provided at a cost of 6d (12c) per head. Residential students are required to be punctual and to keep regular hours. Permission to stay out late must be secured beforehand from the tutor or proctor in charge. College bounds must be kept except on the half-day of the week, when the freedom of the town is permitted.

The most striking feature of student-life in the residential colleges in England is the amount of time devoted to athletics. Athletics to the English student does not mean that out of a college of 200 students, 189 habitually watch 11 players play a game; it really means that the whole 200 students actually play the game regularly. All the colleges have extensive playing fields. Some of these are at a considerable distance from the college buildings, but this does not seem to entail any hardship. A special compulsory fee is charged for athletics. Association football is the favorite game of the men students; field hockey, of the women students. Rugby football, cricket, croquet, tennis and swimming are also entered into with great zest. It is not uncommon to find ten association football teams in a college all playing regular scheduled games. The great matches of the year are those be-

tween past and present, and between the students and staff. Territorial army corps are found in most colleges for men. The regular exercise in the open air combined with an abundance of plain but wholesome food cannot fail to react beneficially upon the health of the future teacher. In the case of day colleges the pressure of the program of studies precludes the devotion of much time to games, although many of the colleges are coping with the problem in a very successful manner.

A normal time-table for a denominational college would run somewhat as follows:

6.30 A.M.	Rising bell
7.30 A.M.	Chapel bell
7.45 A.M.	Breakfast
9.00 A.M. to 1.00 P.M.	Lectures
1.00 P.M. to 1.30 P.M.	Dinner
1.30 P.M. to 3.35 P.M.	Free time
3.45 P.M. to 4.45 P.M.	Private study or lecture
4.45 P.M. to 5.15 P.M.	Tea
5.15 P.M. to 7.15 P.M.	Private study
7.30 P.M. to 8.00 P.M.	Supper
8.00 P.M. to 9.30 P.M.	Free time
9.30 P.M.	Chapel
10.15 P.M.	Lights out

The time-table will vary on some days on account of special lectures. Saturday afternoon is always a half holiday.

The college societies are very numerous and very virile. Most colleges have literary, debating and choral societies. Reading circles and Bible circles are also prominent. College magazines are produced by present students for the benefit of both past and present students. Every college has its alumni association. Each alumni association has several branches—one in each town or city in which a few of the alumni live. Reports of alumni meetings are given in the college magazines. On the occasion of great anniversaries of the college, the alumni from distant parts of the country assemble once more within their alma mater to celebrate the occasion. Old friendships are renewed and new ones made. The loyalty shown to an English training college is as great as that shown to a college fraternity in America.

The sectarian character of many of the training colleges has been indicated in various parts of this chapter. This denominational control dates back to 1839, when the Committee of Council,

in spite of vigorous protests from the majority of its members, was forced to divide the £10,000 ($50,000) grant of 1835 between the British and Foreign School Society and National Society. The first severe blow at the religious domination of the training colleges was struck in 1890, when day training colleges of an undenominational character were first established. The establishment of day training colleges under the management of local education authorities from 1905 onwards was of a similar trend. In 1906, the regulations stated that all places in the colleges were to be thrown open to all students without the imposition of a religious test, but circumstances proved too strong for the government—a year later a compromise was made which permitted the religious denominations to reserve fifty per cent of the places in their colleges for students of their particular religious persuasion. This rule is still in force. The regulations for 1909 stated in chapter X that religious instruction was to be provided in all training colleges. Attendance was not to be obligatory, but any student who had attended a course of religious instruction was to be entitled to a statement certifying the fact of such attendance. Before the regulations came into force, the Board withdrew the chapter.[28] An extensively signed memorial on this subject from the members of the Educational Settlement Committee was forwarded to the President of the Board in December 1909. The petition ran as follows:

"We, the undersigned members of the Educational Settlement Committee, and others, desiring that religious and moral teaching should be retained as an integral part of school life, under administrative arrangements favorable to sincerity and reality in such teaching and with careful regard for the various forms of conscientious belief among parents and teachers alike, beg leave to express the hope that the government will take steps to secure in all training colleges that those preparing themselves for the teaching profession should be given opportunity by voluntary attendance at suitable classes, to qualify themselves if they so desire, by study and training for the work of giving religious and moral instruction in the schools.

Moreover, while differing among ourselves as to the form which the national system of training colleges may ultimately take, we feel that in the present circumstances it is desirable to reach without further delay a firmer settlement of the questions

[28] Circular 725 as to regulations for religious instruction in training colleges, July 19th, 1909.

which have recently arisen, and we therefore take this opportunity of asking that the Board of Education will take into its careful consideration the advisability of permitting, under reasonable conditions and with the consent of the authorities concerned, the establishment of non-denominational hostels in connection with denominational training colleges, and vice versa, of denominational hostels in connection with non-denominational training colleges."

The requests seem plausible enough, but there is a growing conviction in England that the present unfortunate religious difficulties of the schools and training colleges will not be settled until a complete secular system is established.

Training colleges may offer courses specially designed to prepare students to become teachers in special elementary schools for the blind, or deaf, or mentally defective children. These courses are but rarely offered or taken. The rapid extension of schools for mentally defectives will probably result in a growth of special training facilities in the various training colleges. There is, however, a college for training teachers of the blind at Upper Norwood which is under the jurisdiction of the Board. It has accommodation for thirty-one students, although only six or thereabouts are in residence. The Board gave the College recognition in 1896 and granted the same subsidies as were granted to sighted students. The syllabus is nearly the same as in sighted training colleges, except for the special psychology and portions of special method. Many of the students have passed with distinction. One of them obtained the B.A. degree of London University. There seems, however, to be a prejudice against the employment of blind teachers, although they are employed only in schools and classes for the blind.

In conclusion, it may be stated that, while English training colleges have many excellent features which are real contributions to the theory of training teachers, they have many serious defects. Especially is the general professional work neglected. To the excellent academic preparation now given to teachers should be added a sounder professional training. The introduction of courses in educational psychology and in history of education would be highly beneficial. But above all, the addition of well equipped and well staffed model, practice, and experimental schools to each of the training colleges would pave the way for the introduction of a more scientific method in the training of teachers for elementary schools.

CHAPTER V

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OTHER THAN ELEMENTARY

A notable extension of the field of activity of the Board of Education is in the direction of the provision and supervision of training facilities for teachers other than elementary. That the control exercised is as yet only of a very limited character is seen by a study of the following cases:

Secondary Teachers: In public schools tradition more value has been attributed to the personality and scholarship of the teacher than to the methods he employed and consequently the view that a teacher is born and not made has had a greater vogue in secondary than in elementary education. It is only within the past few decades that the necessity for giving professional training to the secondary teacher has been realized. From the beginning, women, because of the greater difficulty in obtaining positions, have been more concerned about training than men.

Some of the early attempts to give training were most praiseworthy. The College of Preceptors has granted diplomas for secondary teachers from 1854; and in 1873 it instituted lectures on teaching. The Girls' Public Day School Company, founded in 1873, saw the need of training secondary mistresses for their schools and attempted to make provision for it.[1] Another, and more successful attempt, was made by the Teachers' Training and Registration Society which founded the Maria Grey Training College in 1878. Although the work of the college is divided into three parts—lower, higher, and kindergarten—the needs of secondary teachers are kept uppermost and are catered for accordingly. The formation of the Teachers Training Syndicate by the Cambridge Senate in 1879, the institution of a secondary teachers' diploma examination in 1883 by the University of London, the establishment of the Oxford Delegacy for the training of secondary teachers in 1896, and the consistent advocacy

[1] Balfour: Educational Systems, p. 184.

of the policy of training secondary teachers by the Headmasters' Conference and other associations of teachers from 1872 onwards have all contributed to the solution of this difficult problem.

Previous to the Bryce Royal Commission on secondary education in 1895 the facilities for training secondary teachers had always been provided by private individuals and organizations, whose field, for the most part, was restricted to women. Very few of the colleges had suitable practising schools under their own direction, and many of them were wholly engaged in the preparation of candidates for external examinations. The Commission recommended that courses of special preparation with both theoretical and practical sides should be established. After examining many witnesses with respect to the relative merits of providing such courses by colleges for elementary teachers already in existence, or by the universities, or as a kind of apprenticeship in a properly appointed secondary school, the Commission finally concluded that on the whole it would be better for universities to provide the training although other institutions in the nature of residential colleges should be allowed to cooperate. Such training wherever given should only be open to students with high academic attainments and should be entirely professional in character.[2]

The inauguration of the teachers' register (since discontinued) and the passing of the Education Act of 1902, which brought secondary schools under the control of the central authority, both stimulated the efforts made to provide training colleges for secondary teachers. That government was favorable to the movement is shown by the following article which has appeared annually in the secondary school regulations since 1905: "Where the Board think fit, they may, on consideration of the teaching staff as a whole, require that a certain proportion of all new appointments shall consist of persons who have gone through a course of training recognized by the Board for the purpose."[3] Since the Board was demanding trained secondary teachers the logic of the situation required the Board to provide the necessary facilities. In 1908, therefore, the Board first made grants to certain institutions which trained secondary teachers. In course

[2] Bryce: Royal Commission, 1895, I, pp. 70–71; 198–208; 321–323.

[3] Secondary School Regulations, 1909, Art. 16.

of time probably all the institutions which give training to secondary teachers will come under the jurisdiction of the Board. For the present, however, most of the universities are content to continue their "diploma" courses for secondary teachers without submitting to inspection or interference from the Board.

The diplomas of the universities are granted, with few exceptions, for success in an examination given at the end of a post-graduate year of study in education. This year is devoted entirely to professional studies. Practice in teaching in properly equipped secondary schools is essential. This may run from a few hours, as in Oxford, to 250 hours, as in Liverpool. A few institutions such as the Cambridge Teachers' Training Syndicate and the College of Preceptors forego the year of training and grant diplomas merely upon examination. The University of London frames similar regulations, but for external students only. The diploma examinations invariably consist of two parts — a written examination in principles and history of education, and a practical test before a body of examiners. Other subjects such as genetic psychology and school hygiene are added in a few cases. The diploma examinations of the College of Preceptors differ from the others in so far as three classes—Associate, Licentiate, and Fellow — are recognized.[4]

The government regulations for the training of secondary teachers are but tentative beginnings. The total Parliamentary grant available is limited to £5,000 ($25,000). Consequently, the work is restricted to granting monetary assistance to colleges or secondary schools already established which give a purely professional training of not less than an academical year's duration to not less than ten persons at a time. The grants, the Board explains, "are intended to promote the improvement of salaries and of teaching staff and they should be supplemented for this purpose by at least equal amount derived from other sources." Grants are made at the rate of £100 ($500) for each group of five students in training, providing that the total sum given to a single institution for the year shall not exceed £600 ($3,000). No religious tests are to be made. A high standard of academic attainment is required and after 1911 a university degree (with the exception of a few other qualifications of equal merit) will be an essential prerequisite. The faculty must also

[4] Schoolmasters' Year Book, 1909, pp. 230–259.

be well qualified; at least one-half must have had successful secondary school experience. The course of study must provide for teaching practice under adequate supervision. Its duration is not to be less than sixty days, of which forty are to be spent in secondary schools approved by the Board.[5]

The potentialities of this new departure of the Board are very great. The significance of it lies in the fact that for the first time in English history the government has undertaken the task of training secondary teachers. The undoubted result of it will be the strengthening of the secondary school system in what has hitherto been its weakest point.

Teachers of Domestic Subjects: At the present time increased attention is being devoted to the teaching of domestic subjects in England and Wales. As grant earning subjects, the various branches of domestic science and art find a place in the curriculum of the elementary school as outlined by the code. All secondary schools for girls are compelled to include instruction in domestic subjects or grants are withheld. To prevent the timetable from becoming overcrowded, the domestic science course may be substituted for science or mathematics other than arithmetic.[6]

The movement for training teachers of domestic subjects began in 1877. In that year the education department paid grants to colleges which included cookery in their curricula. The instruction was given by a peripatetic teacher from the National Training School of Cookery. Such training was very unsatisfactory and when the department raised the standards in 1893 the colleges were unable to meet the demands and consequently abandoned all attempts to teach it. Meanwhile, many private schools had arisen and were granting diplomas of various kinds. Of these diplomas the department took cognizance in 1889. In 1893 the department outlined the minimum requirements for the cookery diploma. In 1899 the standards were raised and a system of individual examinations for the diploma was established. This did not work satisfactorily, so inspection was substituted for examination in 1906. Many new branches such as housewifery and laundry work were added at this time.[7]

[5] Regulations for the Training of Secondary Teachers, 1909.

[6] Regulations for Secondary Schools, 1909, Art. 9.

[7] Special Report on the Teaching of Cookery, 1907, pp. V–XVI.

The present training colleges for teachers of domestic subjects are situated in large towns and are under the control of the local education authorities. Candidates for the various diplomas recognized by the Board must be eighteen years of age, must pass an entrance examination or give other evidence of satisfactory previous education, must produce a satisfactory medical certificate, and must make a declaration that it is her bona-fide intention to become a teacher of domestic subjects in a school under the jurisdiction of the Board. Pupils may be excused the declaration if they pay to the local authority such sum as it loses on the government grants. The staff must be adequate and efficient. No appointment can be made without the sanction of the Board. All members of the staff must have had at least two years of successful experience in teaching. The curriculum of a training school must be approved by the Board. In general, if the school is a large one, courses are offered in cookery, laundry-work, home dressmaking, needlework, millinery, housewifery, science and the theory and practice of education. All courses include practical work and practice in teaching. This teaching may be done in a local school, or, as at the Battersea Polytechnic Training School of Domestic Economy, in a practising school connected with the training institution.

The following diplomas are recognized by the Board:

(1) A full diploma for cookery.
(2) A limited diploma for cookery.
(3) A diploma for laundry work.
(4) A diploma for housewifery.
(5) A diploma for combined domestic subjects.

The diplomas, except the limited one for cookery, are of two classes. They are granted for excellence in work done during the course and for success in various examinations at the end of the course.

The full diploma course in cookery is 480 hours; the limited diploma course, which is confined to certificated teachers, is 280 hours; the diploma for laundry work is 460 hours; the diploma for housewifery 300 hours; and the diploma for combined domestic subjects 1,600 hours. This latter is normally a two years' course. About one-eighth of the time is devoted to teaching or observation of teaching. After two years of successful experi-

ence as a teacher the Board endorses the certificate. All diplomas satisfy the regulations and codes of the Board with respect to the qualifications of teachers of domestic science. The expenses of the training schools are met by students' fees and grants from the Board which are given for satisfactory completion of a diploma course.[8] Many local authorities grant scholarships which cover the cost of maintenance and fees. London grants nine such scholarships, besides ten pupil-teacherships in handicrafts, for girls between the ages of fourteen and eighteen.

In 1907-8 there were in England and Wales eighteen training schools recognized by the Board, with a total of 925 students in training.[9]

Teachers of Art: The only training college for Art teachers directly maintained by the Board of Education is the Royal College of Art, London. Courses of instruction are given in each of the four schools into which the institution is divided — the school of architecture; the school of ornament and design; the school of decorative painting; and the school of sculpture and modelling. A student who qualifies in all four schools is granted the Associateship of the College (A.R.C.A.); a student qualifying in one of the schools is granted the Schools Associateship.

Other qualifications for art teachers are the Art Class Teacher's and the Art Master's Certificates. The requirements for the Art Class Teacher's Certificates are (a) the satisfactory completion of a number of works of art, and (b) a first class at the Board's examinations in geometrical drawing; perspective; memory drawing in pencil, chalk, or brush, of plant forms treated flatly; model drawing, outline; drawing in light and shade from a cast; and elementary design. The Art Master's Certificate may have from one to four parts. The first part is granted for satisfactory completion of a number of works of Art together with a first class at the Board's examinations in the following: architecture; drawing from life; anatomy; painting ornament; principles of ornament; advanced design; modelling the head from the life; and advanced modelling design. Successful candidates in the former examinations may sit for further certificates in group II

[8] Regulations for the Training of Teachers of Domestic Subjects, 1909.
[9] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8, Tables 126 and 127.

(architecture, design and applied art); in group III (figure drawing and painting); or in group IV (modelling).

Kindergarten Teachers: Unfortunately for English education the terms kindergarten teacher and infant school teacher are by no means synonymous. The spirit of the kindergarten has barely touched the English infant schools. It is only within the past two or three years that the Board of Education has thought fit to encourage, within the walls of the training colleges for elementary teachers, special courses of training for kindergarten teachers. But no special diploma for satisfactory completion of these courses is as yet granted by the Board.

The qualifications for kindergarten teachers recognized throughout England and Wales are the elementary and higher certificate of the National Froebel Union. There are two parts to the higher certificate. The subjects of examination for the elementary certificate and Part I of the higher certificate are: (a) knowledge of child nature, including practical observation of children, and the elementary laws of psychology; (b) nature knowledge; (c) educational handwork; (d) class teaching, including criticism lessons; (e) theory of music and singing; (f) blackboard drawing and brushwork; (g) physical exercises and simple laws of health; (h) the general principles and methods of Froebel and Pestalozzi; and (i) practical geometry. For Part II of the higher certificate the same subjects are studied in greater detail with the addition of Froebel's principles as they are set forth in the "Education of Man" and the "Mutter and Koselieder." Preparation for these examinations may be obtained in many private high schools and colleges. The chief institution for the purpose, and the one which sets the standard for all the others, is the Froebel Educational Institute in London. A three year course is provided — one year for the elementary and two years for the higher certificate. The present tendency is to break away from the stereotyped "gifts" of Froebel, while retaining the spirit of his kindergarten.

Teachers of Educational Handwork: There are, at the present time, no courses of training provided by or inspected by the Board of Education. The Board of Education is represented, however, by two members upon the Board of Examinations for Educational Handwork, which endeavors to standardize the

qualifications of teachers of handwork. This Board of Examinations, founded in 1898, was established to undertake such work as the following:

"(a) To draw up a list of qualified examiners in the various branches of Educational Handwork, after consultation with the Associations represented upon it.
(b) To issue, after examination, certificates to teachers and to approve schemes of work for such examinations.
(c) To keep a register of other teachers who, in the opinion of the Board, are properly qualified to give instruction."

The council of the Board is composed of twenty-three members representative of the following organizations:

10 representatives of the Educational Handwork Association
2 representatives of the Board of Education
1 representative of the Association of Head Mistresses
1 representative of the Association of Training Colleges
5 members co-opted to represent the Central Welsh Board
4 members co-opted to represent other educational interests.

Examinations in kindergarten handwork, clay modelling, brush drawing, blackboard drawing, color work, paper cutting and mounting, cardboard modelling, woodwork, wood-carving, metal work, repoussé (metal) work and school gardening are held by the Board. Only those candidates who can produce satisfactory evidence as a teacher, such for example as is afforded by the possession of the elementary teachers' certificate, and who have completed courses of instruction (including practical work) under a teacher recognized by the Board are permitted to sit for the examinations. The examination is divided into two parts: (a) drawing and theory, and (b) practical work. In both parts at least two-thirds the maximum marks must be obtained for a pass. Distinction is granted for special proficiency in any subject. Two grades of certificate are granted—the Teacher's Certificate and the Teacher's Higher Certificate. The certificates in woodwork and metal-work are recognized as qualifications by the Board of Education under the various codes and regulations. The Board is doing a very important work, although as yet it is not very extensive. Its extent may be judged from the fact that in 1908 for woodwork, a subject in which more certificates were granted than in any other, only 100 Teacher's

Certificates and 28 Teacher's Higher Certificates were issued for the whole country.[10]

Teachers of Physical Education: During the past decade, evidence has been accumulating that there is a serious amount of physical unfitness among the working classes of England. Parliament has become aware of the fact and by the Education (Provision of Meals) Act of 1906 and section 13 of the Education (Administrative Provisions) Act of 1907, which empowers local authorities to provide vacation schools, vacation classes and play-centres, and enjoins them to provide for the medical inspection of school children under their charge, has taken steps to remedy the evil. Government does not, however, yet provide special training facilities for the training of teachers of physical education. The nearest approach to this is in a grant which it makes to the Physical Training College for women—a constituent part of the South Western Polytechnic at Chelsea—although the ordinary elementary school teachers must take courses in physical training while in residence in a training college.

The work of training gymnastic teachers is left to private residential colleges, the first of which was opened at Dartford in 1885. The students are usually admitted at eighteen years of age for a two years course of instruction and training. For the most part, a modified Ling or Swedish system is taught. Chelsea teaches both the Swedish and the German systems, while Southport has built up a course of gymnastics which is based upon movements found in the British national games. The branches studied comprise all or part of the following:—anatomy, theory and practice of educational gymnastics, theory of movements in gymnastics, massage and medical gymnastics, physiology, hygiene, elocution, dancing, fencing, swimming and various outdoor games. Moreover, practice teaching is compulsory for all. This is usually done, with the consent of the Board of Education, in a neighboring public elementary school. The fees are high; the normal charge for an academic year of thirty-four weeks is £90 ($450).

The gymnastic teachers have banded together and have founded the Incorporated British College of Physical Education—an examining body which is endeavoring to promote

[10] Regulations and Syllabus of the Board of Examinations for Educational Handwork, 1909.

physical education in various ways. The members (collectively) are of three kinds—Members, Licentiates, and Associates. Members are instructors actively engaged in teaching who have passed the prescribed examination of the College. Licentiates are those who have passed a prescribed examination but are not engaged in teaching. Associates are those interested in education who pay the necessary dues. Other examining bodies are the National Society of Physical Education and the Gymnastic Teachers' Institute. These three institutions are very flourishing, and, with the revival of interest in physical training, they will probably play an increasingly important part in the training of a special section of teachers.

The above examples fully illustrate the fact that in the field of secondary education, of education in domestic and other subjects, there is an evolution in progress very similar to the evolution which took place in the field of elementary education. Formerly, elementary education was a private matter; the training of teachers was a private matter also. But the time came when the state realized that elementary education and the training of elementary teachers was too vital a matter to be left to the good will of a few voluntary societies. Consequently, the duty of providing these things was taken over by the nation at large. In much the same way, private initiative founded the institutions for the training of secondary and domestic science teachers. These institutions are now being rapidly brought under the control of the Board of Education. The time is not far distant when the nation, for its own safety, will have to control and supervise practically all the education given within its borders. How to exercise this supervision without destroying the individuality and initiative of its people is the problem that England, and all other democratic nations, will have to solve.

CHAPTER VI

THE TEACHER IN SERVICE

The object of the present chapter is to give some indication of the kind of professional life the English teacher leads when in actual service. To this end the following topics will be discussed:—the types of elementary schools; the classes of teachers; powers and duties of the various classes of teachers; appointment and dismissal of teachers; salaries of teachers; supervision of teachers; reading circles; summer and sessional courses; teachers' associations and other educational organizations.

The Types of Elementary Schools: The dominant type of elementary school is the co-educational one department school with two or more teachers. The one teacher school—the typical school of America—is all but unknown in England. In 1908, out of a total of 20,612 schools in England and Wales 13,929 were of one department only.[1] In the towns and larger villages it is customary to divide the school into departments. Of the latter the infants', boys', and girls' departments are the most important. Frequently these three departments are housed under one roof but on separate floors; only seldom are they segregated into separate schools. The head teacher may either be responsible for the whole school or for a single department only. The Board does not, as a rule, recognize a head teacher who is responsible for more than 550 children. In a few instances the schools are divided into junior and senior divisions, in which case they correspond to the primary and grammar grades of America.

Classes of Teachers: The following table gives for 1908 in England and Wales the classes of teachers, with the number in each class, recognized by the Board, together with the number of pupils in average attendance for which each teacher is considered equivalent in the staffing of the school.[2]

[1] Board of Education: Educational Statistics, 1907–8, pp. 28 and 314

[2] The table is made up from statistics given on page 25 of the Red Code for 1909; and pp. 29 and 315 of the Board's Educational Statistics for 1907–8.

TABLE III

Class of teacher	No. of men	No. of women	Total men and women	No. of children in average attendance for which each teacher is equivalent
Head teacher	13,865	18,086	31,951	35
Certificated assistant teacher	17,374	42,232	59,606	60
Uncertificated assistant teacher	5,286	38,551	43,837	35
Student-teacher[3]	.....	.....	.....	20
Supplementary teacher	195	18,437	18,632	20
Provisional assistant teacher	351	1,530	1,881	20
Pupil-teacher[3]	5,167	16,553	21,720	..

It will be seen from the table that, as in America, although there is a preponderance of women teachers, men teachers obtain a greater proportion of the better positions. Many of the women teachers are married.[4] The employment of married women is becoming a serious problem in England. Many authorities, such as Widnes, Manchester, Devonshire, etc., make the marriage of a woman teacher equivalent to her resignation. Such actions are being strenuously opposed by the majority of the women, although, in general, the Board of Education supports the council making the exclusion rule.

The qualifications of a head-teacher are threefold: (1) he must be certificated, i.e., have passed the certificate examination of the Board or its recognized equivalent; (2) he must have had this certificate endorsed as having completed satisfactorily twenty-four consecutive months of service as an elementary school teacher; and (3) he must have had a regular course of training in a training college. In the smaller rural schools these qualifications are not insisted upon, although the tendency everywhere is to raise the standards as high as possible.

[3] The student-teacher is of too recent an origin to be included in the 1907–8 statistics: the pupil-teacher no longer counts on the staff of the school. (See Circular 709.)

[4] In London about one-third of the women teachers are married. School Government Chronicle. Feb. 23, 1907.

The head-teacher in England differs from the principal in America in this important respect, viz.: he possesses a greater degree of both freedom and responsibility. In framing the course of study and drawing up the time-table of the school these features are especially prominent. In America the course of study is usually imposed upon the school from some central authority; in England it is invariably drawn up by the head-teacher of the school. It must, however, be approved by the inspector, but if it conforms to the rather elastic regulations of the code such approval is never withheld. Theoretically, therefore, there are as many courses of study as there are schools or departments; in actual practice, owing to a growth of supervision, the courses of study for any given local area approximate a norm although the variability is still very great. This freedom of action constitutes at once the strength and weakness of the English school system. The strong progressive head teacher, to the benefit of his school, can experiment and modify his curriculum almost to any extent he pleases; the weak head-teacher without zeal or initiative tends to stagnate in conservative inefficiency.

Other features of head teachership in England are the supervision of the training of pupil-teachers and student-teachers, the responsibility for the general control and supervision of the instruction and discipline of the school, and the responsibilities connected with the clerical work of the school such as the filling in of returns, and the keeping of attendance and other records. The clerical work of the school, which tends to become excessive, is performed personally by the head teacher of the school. This work, which for the most part could be as efficiently done by a low salaried secretary, takes the head teacher away from his more important teaching and supervisory duties. If peripatetic teachers are attached to a school no disturbance of the authority of the head teacher is permitted. The head teacher is encouraged by the Board to teach the upper standards (grades) so far as time permits, but in a large school this desirable condition cannot always be secured.[5]

The certificated assistant teacher may either be trained or untrained. In the former case a regular course at a training col-

[5] Red Code 1909, pp. 20–22, 53–56.
Buff Code 1909, sec. II, pp. 16–20.

lege must have been pursued; in both cases the certificate examination or its equivalent must have been passed.[6] From the body of certificated assistant teachers, head teachers are almost invariably chosen.

Uncertificated teachers must have passed the Preliminary Certificate examination or an approved equivalent before they can be recognized as a part of the staff of the school. By continuing their studies they may prepare for the certificate examination and become untrained certificated teachers. A subsequent year in residence at a training college then fulfils the Board's requirements as to professional training.

The supplementary teacher — the great blot on the English Elementary School system — was brought into existence by the poverty of the voluntary schools. This poverty was removed by the Education Act of 1902, but it was not until 1909 that serious steps were taken to abolish this class of teacher. The only qualifications of a supplementary teacher are that she shall have attained the age of eighteen years and have been successfully vaccinated. The portion of the regulations which states that they are "specially approved by the inspector for their capacity in teaching" has been practically a dead letter. The drastic regulations of 1909 will have important effect on the question of their continuance in the teaching profession. These regulations restrict their sphere of action to the department for infants or, in case of the small rural school, to the lowest class of the department for older scholars. Men are no longer recognized as supplementary teachers, and women supplementary teachers already engaged in teaching the upper standards are given until 1914 to obtain further qualifications, failing which they must either be relegated to the infants' department or must seek other vocations. Not more than two supplementary teachers can be employed in a school. The local authority may compel them to pursue courses of study leading

[6] For the list of equivalent examinations see schedule I. A of the elementary school code. Attention is here drawn to the fact that certification by passing the final examination for a degree of a university within the British Empire with the addition of a teachers' diploma obtained after an extra year's residence at a university is becoming more and more usual.

to increased professional qualification. As a result of the new regulations a review of all supplementary teachers is now in progress.

A provisional assistant teacher is a pupil-teacher who is recognized for one year after the termination of his pupil-teachership engagement.[7]

Student-teachers and pupil-teachers were fully treated in Chapter III. The latter are no longer counted on the effective staff of a school.

Appointment and Dismissal of Teachers: The appointment of elementary school teachers in England is in the hands of the local authority. These powers may be delegated to the education committee, or to a sub-committee of the education committee, or to the manager of a school, but in every case the appointment must be sanctioned and confirmed by the local authority. All elementary school teachers are appointed under stamped written agreements. Failure to comply with this regulation, which is retrospective in its working, may cause the Board to withhold the grants to the school. It is customary to advertise all vacancies. In some of the regulations adopted by local authorities the actual papers in which the advertisements are to appear are designated. The application with testimonials are generally considered by a small sub-committee. The more unsuitable applicants are eliminated. The best three are then requested to appear before the committee when the final choice is made. Notification of the appointment is sent to the Board after its ratification by the local authority. In voluntary schools the managers take all the necessary steps to fill a vacant office. After the choice is made, they submit the name, qualifications and testimonials to the local authority. No appointment is complete until the consent of the local authority has been signified. The consent may not be withheld except on educational grounds.[8] The tenure of teachers is on the whole more secure in England than in America. Moreover, the teacher cannot be required "to perform any duties such as are connected with the work of a public

[7] Circular 709: May, 1909.
Red Code 1909, pp. 53–59.
Buff Code 1909, sec. II, pp. 16–21.
Handbook of Education, pp. 452–457.

[8] Education Act, 1902, sec. 7. (c)

elementary school and with the instruction of pupil-teachers and probationers, or to abstain, outside of the school hours, from any occupations which do not interfere with the due performance of his duties as teacher of a public elementary school." Rarely is a teacher dismissed from office except for gross misconduct or rank inefficiency. This was not always the case and a teacher can still be dismissed from a voluntary school on grounds connected with the giving of religious instruction in the school. In case of dismissal the usual notice given is three months for a head teacher and one month for an assistant. Right of appeal to the local authority or even to the ultimate authority — the Board of Education — is always conceded.

In secondary schools the usual method of appointment of teachers is similar to the one in vogue in American private schools. Prior to the passing of the Endowed Schools (Masters) Act in July, 1908, the assistant master was often little more than a personal servant to the head teacher, liable to be removed by him at pleasure, and liable also to find his tenure of office abruptly terminated on the removal of the head teacher. This state of things is rapidly passing away chiefly owing to the growing control of the Board of Education over the secondary education of England.[9]

Salaries of Teachers: As in all other countries the salaries of teachers in England and Wales, while continually improving, are still very unsatisfactory in amount. The standard they reach is lower than the general standard in other corresponding walks of life. This state of affairs prevents many of the brighter young men and women from entering the teaching profession in spite of its security of tenure and its long vacations.

The salaries of elementary teachers, which are customarily paid at the end of each calendar month, are usually fixed by local scales which provide for a fixed minimum, annual increments, and a fixed maximum for the teachers in a given area. Scales in different localities differ in amount although the variation is not so great as in America. Cities pay larger salaries than rural districts; London and neighborhood pay higher salaries than other parts of the country. The salaries of men are invariably higher than those of women.

[9] Handbook of Education, pp. 452–458; 463–471; 564–571. Elementary School Code, 1909. Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters; a review of its work, aims and methods, 1909; p. 6.

The National Union of Teachers, a thoroughly representative organization of elementary school teachers, has been very active in the matter of standardization of teachers' salaries. The following is the scale of salaries adopted by the Union:

Head teachers

"The minimum salary of a certificated headmaster should not be less than £150 ($750), and of a certificated headmistress not less than £120 ($600).

Provincial Class Teachers

Men.—Minimum £90 ($450); maximum £180 ($900), by annual automatic increments of £5 ($25) to £100 ($500), and then by annual automatic increments of £10 ($50) to the maximum.

Women.—Minimum £80 ($400); maximum £145 ($725), by annual automatic increments of £5 ($25) to £115 ($575), and then by annual automatic increments of £10 ($50) to the maximum.

Class Teachers in London and Neighborhood

Men.—Minimum £100 ($500); maximum £220 ($1100), by annual automatic increments of £5 ($25) to £110 ($550), and then by annual automatic increments of £10 ($50) to the maximum.

Women.—Minimum £90 ($450); maximum £175 ($875), by annual automatic increments of £5 ($25) to £125 ($625), and then by annual automatic increments of £10 ($50) to the maximum.

Girls' and infants' mistresses of the same professional status working in the same school should be paid the same rate of salary.

Class mistresses working in mixed or boys' departments should receive the same rate of salary as the class masters in the same department.

In determining the initial salary to be paid to any teacher under this scale regard shall be had to years of service rendered by such teacher under any local authority."[10]

That the standards set by this scale are not reached is seen from the following tables. Table IV gives the scales of salaries in active operation in a few typical local areas.

[10] Handbook of Education, p. 541.

TABLE IV

SALARIES IN POUNDS STERLING OF CERTIFIED ASSISTANT TEACHERS

Year of service	London		Manchester		Crewe		Lancashire		Bedfordshire	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1	100	90	90	75	100	85	80	70	85	75
2	105	94	95	80	105	90	85	75	88	78
3	110	98	100	85	110	95	90	80	91	81
4	117.5	102	105	90	115	100	95	85	94	84
5	125	106	110	95	120	105	100	90	97	87
6	132.5	110	115	100	125	110	105	95	100	90
7	140	114	120	105	130	115	110	100	103	93
8	147.5	118	125	110	135	120	115	105	106	95
9	155	122	130	...	140	...	120	110	109	...
10	162.5	126	135	...	...	...	125	...	112	...
11	170	130	140	...	...	...	130	...	115	...
12	177.5	134	145	...	...	...	135	...	118	...
Maximum	200	150	150	110	140	120	140	110	130	95
35 years' total	6,220	4,770	4,860	3,710	4,720	4,060	4,510	3,670	4,190	3,248

Note: London County is a typical cosmopolitan city; Manchester and Crewe are industrial centres; Lancashire is a densely populated county; while Bedfordshire is an agricultural county. Deviations from the above scales are sometimes made for special qualifications.

Tables V and VI show the distribution of salaries actually paid to head teachers in 1906-7.

TABLE V

TABLE OF FREQUENCIES SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF SALARIES OF HEAD TEACHERS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
1906–7

Amount in pounds sterling	Frequency	
	Men	Women
Under 50	....	13
50– 99	691	6288
100–149	4889	7352
150–199	3331	1955
200–249	2091	619
250–299	848	215
300–349	347	14
350–399	132	....
400–449	25	....
450–499	3	....
500–549	1	....
550–599	....	....
600–649	1	....

The median salary for headmasters is £159 ($795); median salary for headmistresses is £112.5 ($562.50).

Table VI shows the same salaries in steps of £10 from £50 to £199.

TABLE VI

TABLE OF FREQUENCIES SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF SALARIES (BETWEEN £50 AND £199) OF HEAD TEACHERS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

1906–7

Amount in pounds sterling	Frequency	
	Men	Women
50– 59	3	57
60– 69	11	401
70– 79	48	1282
80– 89	162	2296
90– 99	467	2252
100–109	903	2071
110–119	1020	1718
120–129	1159	1525
130–139	1069	1315
140–149	738	723
150–159	845	762
160–169	777	526
170–179	575	272
180–189	597	243
190–199	537	152

The mode salary for men is therefore from £120-£129 ($600-$645); for women £80-£99 ($400-$495).

The statistics of salaries given below were compiled by the National Education Association from the statistics of the Board as published for 1906-7-8.

TABLE VII

SALARIES OF TEACHERS

Number of Teachers	*Men Teachers in England* Status and Salaries	Average Salary
23	Head Teachers in Higher Elementary Schools; salaries from under £200 to over £500	£324 ($1620)
12,359	Heads (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £60 to over £400.	£168 ($840)
139	Assistants in Higher Elementary Schools; salaries from under £100 to over £400	£160 ($800)
15,440	Assistants (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £250.	£119 ($595)
18	Heads (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under 70 to over £120.	£82 ($410)
4,023	Assistants (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £250	£67 ($335)

Men Teachers in Wales

Number of teachers	Status and Salaries	Average salary
1	Head Teacher in Higher Elementary School.....	£200 ($1000)
1,311	Heads (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £60 to over £300.	£143 ($715)
3	Assistants in higher Elementary Schools; salaries from under £125 to over £150.....	£122 ($610)
1,094	Assistants (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £60 to over £170.	£110 ($550)
18	Heads (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £60 to over £90..	£66 ($330)
578	Assistants (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £120.....	£61 ($305)

Women Teachers in England

Number of teachers	Status and Salaries	Average salary
12	Head Teachers in higher Elementary Schools; salaries from under £250 to over £300.....	£267 ($1355)
16,456	Heads (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £50 to over £300.	£116 ($580)
125	Assistants in higher Elementary Schools; salaries from under £75 to over £200.....	£125 ($625)
39,269	Assistants (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £160.	£86 ($430)
319	Heads (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £50 to over £100.	£65 ($325)
31,508	Assistants (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £140.....	£54 ($270)

Women Teachers in Wales

Number of teachers	Status and Salaries	Average salary
Nil.	Head Teachers in Elementary Schools.....	.....
1,129	Heads (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £50 to over £200.	£107 ($535)
2	Assistants in higher Elementary Schools; salaries from under £75 to over £75.....	£78 ($390)
1,642	Assistants (certificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £130.	£78 ($390)
57	Heads (uncertificated) in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £60 to over £80..	£63 ($315)
3,294	Assistants in ordinary Elementary Schools; salaries from under £40 to over £110.....	£51 ($255)

Scales are unsatisfactory from many points of view; they are usually inelastic and do not make provision for special excellence either along academic or professional lines; in the case of head teachers the salaries are dependent on the number of scholars in average attendance, a procedure which severely handicaps the small school; in large areas values vary greatly and salaries

ought to be adjusted accordingly; and some of the scales do not provide for payment of salary during illness.

Published scales of salaries for secondary school teachers are met with but rarely. The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools thinks that a scale which provides for the following would be satisfactory: (a) An initial salary of not less than £150 ($750) a year for any master, rising by annual increments of £10 ($50) a year to at least £300 ($1,500) a year; (b) An initial salary of not less than £120 ($600) a year for a mistress with a university degree and training, rising £10 ($50) per annum for the first two years, afterwards £5 ($25) per annum up to a minimum of £160 ($800); (c) That larger salaries should be offered to teachers of exceptional abilities and attainments, and to holders of posts involving special responsibility.

Although teachers' salaries in England and Wales are far from satisfactory they are, when taken on the whole, intermediate in amount between those of Germany and America. The real advantage of English over American teachers in this respect is increased by the difference of values between free trade England and protectionist America.[11]

Supervision of Teachers: It was pointed out in Chapter I that supervision, as it is understood in America, is quite unknown in England. Only in a few populous centres like London is there an adequate supervisory force. This throws great responsibilities upon the head teacher of the school for in the majority of cases the only oversight exercised is by his Majesty's inspector in a series of intermittent visits. This responsibility has seldom been abused, but there is a growing feeling that careful supervision is necessary if the standard of efficiency is to be maintained or further progress made. The supervision of the assistant teachers in the school is wholly in the hands of the head teacher.

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[11] Handbook of Education, pp. 471–542.

Assistant Teachers' Handbook, pp. 51, 89.

Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters; review of its work, aims and methods, pp. 8–10.

Commissioner's report, Vol. II, 1908, pp. 1057–1075.

Board of Education: Statistics, 1906–7–8.

Reading circles: Reading circles for teachers in which professional literature is read and discussed are unknown in England. Still, many of the teachers are connected with the National Home Reading Union which has for its purpose the guiding of readers in the use of books and of directing self-education. This great reading guild was founded in 1889 and at the present time is affiliated with two other societies — the Co-operative Holidays Association and the Home Music Study Union. The membership is composed of individual readers and members of circles. In 1909 there were 4,410 individual members, 3,734 members of circles, 669 members of the Home Music Study Union and about 12,000 members of the Co-operative Holidays Association. In addition there were about 30,000 school members. The school members are children of school age who are formed into reading circles by their teachers. The payment of the teachers' fee secures the recognition of the scholars in his circle as members of the Union. This field of endeavor has been heartily supported by the Board of Education. In circular 533 the Board commends the work of the National Home Reading Union and proposes the following methods of co-operation between the Union and the elementary schools.

"1. Teachers in elementary schools and pupil-teacher centres might become members of the Society upon the payment by local education authorities of 1s. 6d. per annum, and thereby receive gratis the selected list of books recommended, the monthly magazine, and be entitled to obtain additional copies of it at a small extra cost for use in the schools.

2. Classes might be formed into 'home-reading circles' under the leadership of the teacher.

3. The selected books of the Union might be adopted as class reading books in the higher standards, and the children allowed to take the books home.

4. Scholars might be encouraged, after leaving school or the pupil-teacher centre, to join the National Home Reading Union 'reading circles.'

5. The books in the National Home Reading Union list might be correlated with the subjects prescribed in Evening Schools in which language and literature or other suitable subjects are included in the course, and 'reading circles' be formed in connection with such schools."[12]

[12] Circular 533 to local education authorities: National Home Reading Union.

In London alone, where the Education Committee generously pays the dues of the teachers, there are 25,000 school members.

To assist the members in the various courses the council of the Union publishes monthly magazines giving hints as to way in which, and the purpose for which, the books, drawn up by experts in the various fields, should be read. Short essays are included as also are questions set to test the grasp of the subject-matter of the books. The work of the Union in connection with the public libraries is deserving of mention. Several libraries through the intervention of the Union now work in conjunction with the schools in the locality. A "Reader's Review" is published by the Union to guide readers in the public libraries in their choice of books and subjects for reading. The work of the Union is expanding rapidly and bids fair soon to play a most important part in the lives of the teachers and scholars of England.[13]

A course of home reading is conducted by the Parents' National Education Union. The reading is confined to the distinctive teaching of the Union and therefore to the volumes of the Home Education Series, the contents of which have been specially prepared for the use of the Union.[14]

Summer and Sessional Courses for Teachers: England and Wales have remarkably equable climates which permit of school being held at any time of the year. Consequently, long vacations, due to excessive summer heat, are not a necessity as they are in America. The summer vacation of the elementary school is of three or four weeks' duration; the vacation of the secondary school is from five to eight weeks. These short holidays preclude the development of summer schools to any great extent and therefore the further education of the teacher must, for the most part, be obtained in other ways. As a matter of fact it is only within the last decade that the necessity for the progressive education of the teacher in service has been realized or any facilities provided.

The nearness of the continent has promoted an interest in holiday courses for instruction in modern languages which are

[13] National Home Reading Union Report, 1908–9, and other publications.

[14] Prospectus: Parents' National Educational Union.

largely attended by teachers, but in many instances, it must be confessed, the "holiday" is more in evidence than the "courses." The foreign holiday courses in 1909 were held in the following countries — six in Germany, one in Austria, three in Switzerland, one in Spain, one in Italy, and eighteen in France. The responsibility for the courses is in the hands of various organizations, some British, some continental, others international in character. The Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland organized courses at Neuwied and Lübeck in Germany, at Santander in Spain, and at Tours and Honfleur in France. The foreign holiday courses are mainly attended by secondary teachers of modern languages, but in a few cases, as in the pedagogical courses at Jena, the clientele is almost wholly composed of members of the faculties of training colleges.[15]

The summer or vacation schools at home, though few in number, are very significant. The Scotch summer schools at Edinburgh and St. Andrews have long been famous. The Royal College of Art holds an annual summer school with short art courses for teachers. Oxford and Cambridge also hold summer schools but they do not cater primarily to the elementary school teacher. The Delegacy for the Training of Secondary Teachers, Oxford University, offers vacation courses of practical work and instruction to masters of secondary schools who are prevented by their professional engagements from attending, during the winter session, the required courses for the diploma in education. The usual course lasts four weeks and costs £7.50 ($37.50), but it may be reduced to two or extended to six weeks. In the latter case it is accepted as equivalent to a term's residence. The work done during the session comprises two discussion lessons given each morning to a class of boys, one or two lectures daily, reading under guidance, and essay writing. The following groups of school subjects are dealt with — natural science and geography, mathematics and history, Latin and French, English literature, grammar and composition.[16]

A few progressive local education authorities provide free summer-vacation courses for their teachers or give grants-in-aid to enable them to attend other courses both at home and abroad.

[15] Board of Education: Table of Holiday Courses, 1909.

[16] Prospectus of the Oxford University Delegacy vacation courses for the training of teachers, 1909.

The Leeds city council and the county councils of London and the West Riding of Yorkshire have done more than other authorities along these lines. The city of Leeds gives financial assistance to its teachers to attend courses in French at Tours, Honfleur, Grenoble or Boulogne; in German at Neuwied and Berlin; in Spanish at Santander; in English, French and German at Edinburgh; in technical handwork at Scarborough; and in plumbing at King's College, London. The courses for which grants in aid are awarded by the county council of the West Riding of Yorkshire are as those for Leeds, with the addition of theory and practice of education and physical instruction courses at Scarborough, and the general course at Oxford held under the auspices of the Oxford University Extension Delegacy. London County Council awards 60 grants to enable its elementary and secondary teachers to attend, during the summer vacation, a foreign holiday approved by the council; also 12 grants to assist women teachers to attend the holiday course in nature study held at Swanley Horticultural College during the summer vacation. The amount of the grants for foreign courses is £10 ($50) and for home courses £5 ($25). In this connection the small teachers' summer meetings for instruction in technical subjects, held at Weston-super-Mare by the Somersetshire County Council and at Barry by the Glamorganshire County Council, may also be mentioned.[17]

But it is chiefly in the provision of facilities for the further education of teachers during the winter months that England is conspicuous. In London the classes are of two types — (1) classes intended to improve the teacher's efficiency in regard to certain special subjects, such as drawing, science, infant work and drill, and (2) university classes which are established with a view to bringing teachers into contact with original workers in various branches of learning. In the first type of classes, which are held in the elementary schools of the council, 5,099 teachers were enrolled during the session of 1906-7. In the second type, which are held at the various colleges of London University and

[17] London County Council: Scholarship's Handbook, 1908–9, 132–134.
Somerset County Council: Handbook for 1907, p. 23.
Leeds: Training Courses for Teachers of all Grades, 1906–7.
West Riding County Council: Handbook, Courses for Teachers, Section XI, 1907.

which include such different subjects as ancient languages and literature, history, science, mathematics, and household economics, 2,615 were enrolled.[18] Courses for supplementary and uncertificated teachers are also provided. In Yorkshire, greater attention is paid to the provision of classes to meet the urgent needs of uncertificated and supplementary teachers who wish to study for the certificate examination of the Board of Education.[19] In other parts of the country, while the classes for teachers are constantly improving both in quality and quantity, much still remains to be done.

Teachers' Associations and other Educational Organizations: The general educational organizations of England, which were so prominent during the first half of the nineteenth century, seem to be a resuscitation of a form of corporate life and procedure which flourished from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century. The guilds were the prototype of the later educational organizations just as the apprenticeship system of Tudor times was the prototype of the monotorial and pupil-teacher system of the nineteenth century. The general educational societies of the early part of the nineteenth century were chiefly concerned with the education of the independent poor; it was not until the later decades of the century that we find definite associations of teachers organized on a professional basis. At the present time, however, the teachers' organizations are so numerous that no division of teachers is without its separate organization.

A notable feature of the earlier educational organizations was their denominational bias. The more notable were the British and Foreign School Society 1808, the National Society 1811, the Home and Colonial Society 1836, the Wesleyan Educational Committee 1840, the Congregational Board of Education 1843, the London Ragged School Union 1844, and the Catholic Poor School Committee. The amount of money these societies spent to assist local efforts in the establishment and maintenance of schools, in the training of teachers, in the provision of school books and apparatus at a cheap rate, and in the inspection and organization of schools indicates a great devotion to these self-

[18] Organization of Education in London, 1908, p. 13.

[19] Leeds: Training Courses for Teachers of all Grades, 1906–7.
West Riding County Council: Handbook, Courses for Teachers, Section XI, 1907.

imposed tasks. This belief in the efficacy of a religious education led to generous contributions for its support. The above mentioned societies from the year of their foundation to the year 1859 expended a total of no less than £1,399,832 ($6,999,160) on behalf of education.[20]

Other educational organizations which played important parts during the middle decades of the nineteenth century were the College of Preceptors 1846,[21] the National Public School Association, the Manchester and Salford Committee, the Education League,[22] and the North of England Council for Promoting the Higher Education of Women (1867-74).

The present-day organizations are, for the most part, professional organizations recruiting their members exclusively from the great body of teachers and administrators. A few still exist to protect special interests, religious or otherwise. The teachers' associations are very numerous[23] and very influential and it would be difficult to find an adult English teacher who was not a member of at least one of them. Some associations like the National Union of Teachers (64,459 — 29,473 men and 34,986 women), have a very large membership; others, like the Headmasters' Conference (108), have small memberships but the influence and usefulness of an association cannot be judged by its membership. Some associations, like the Child Study Society and section L of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, exist solely for the promotion of the scientific study of education; others, like the Society of Schoolmasters, founded in 1798, and the Students' Aid Society, Ltd., are purely benevolent and philanthropic institutions.

The activities of modern organizations may be classified under the following heads: (1) political or legislative; (2) legal aid, advice and protection; (3) economic betterment; (4) educational and professional; (5) insurance and benevolent work; (6) tenure; (7) information bureau; (8) appointments bureau; (9) social; (10) publications department; (11) pensions; and (12)

[20] Newcastle Commission, I, 18.

[21] Calendar of the College of Preceptors, 1909: 21–24.

[22] Adams: The Elementary School Contest, pp. 160, 295.

[23] Comprehensive list of these are given in the London Journal of Education for Jan. 1908 and for March, 1910; a similar list is given in the N. U. T. Handbook for 1907.

registration. The above classification, which must not be regarded as mutually exclusive for in actual practice there is much overlapping, will now be treated in some detail. Pensions and registration so far as they are concerned with teachers' associations will be dealt with in the chapter following as part of the much wider aspects of the same topics.

(1) Political or Legislative: By this is meant the efforts to secure improvements in economic and professional conditions by means of legislation. Legislation may be furthered indirectly by means of (a) resolutions, passed at conferences and other influential gatherings of teachers, sent on to the Board of Education and prominent members of Parliament; (b) deputations to the Board or to members of the Cabinet. In 1887 the University Women Teachers' Association joined with the Headmistresses' Association and elected a deputation to wait upon the Board of Education with regard to the absence of women from the inspectorate. The mission was successful but not as successful as the women teachers wished, for on March 4, 1909, a still more representative deputation of women waited upon the President of the Board and urged him, when enlarging his inspectorate staff, to choose women inspectors because they were, in many ways, more competent to deal with the perplexing problems of elementary education than were men. Perhaps the most noted deputations from associations, because most truly representative, are those which have been organized to discuss the vexed question of a teachers' register (see Chapter VII). Although the multitudinous resolutions passed at conferences which are forwarded to influential people are usually not so effective as deputations, they have been instrumental in determining the general lines which legislation has taken. So strongly entrenched are these societies that they naturally are consulted with respect to proposed legislation and they have even been asked to draft bills, e.g., (a) in 1879 the first secondary education bill was drafted by the College of Preceptors; (b) in 1890 the Teachers Guild drafted another one; (c) the Association of Headmasters' had a bill introduced in 1902, but it took the name of the member who introduced it; (d) Colonel Lockwood's bill, 1899, regarding the registration of teachers was drafted by the incorporated Association of Headmasters. The teachers' associa-

tions have also been active in support of any legislation which they could approve. The Education Act of 1902 was supported in the main by practically every organization in the country although numerous amendments from the individual societies were frequently proposed. The stated objects of the various associations show how keenly appreciated is the fact that legislation is supreme. The National Education Association states that one of its objects is — "to promote a system of national education which shall be in all its grades efficient, progressive, and unsectarian, and shall be under popular control; and also to oppose all legislative proposals having a contrary tendency"; the Incorporated Association of Head Mistresses— "to consider all questions affecting the interests of the profession of education, and to initiate and watch over, promote or oppose general or particular measures in Parliament or elsewhere affecting such profession or the interests of persons engaged in the same, and to promote or procure changes of the law, or of the administration of the law relating to such profession or to schools, colleges and other educational institutions and matters"; the National Union of Teachers—"to improve the condition of education in the country, and to obtain the establishment of a national system of education, co-ordinated and complete; also to secure for all public elementary schools adequate financial aid from public sources, accompanied by suitable conditions." In a more direct manner legislation is furthered by actually placing teachers on the various legislative bodies. The National Union of Teachers finances candidates for Parliament. At the present time the general secretary, Sir James Yoxall, is a member and is always consulted upon questions dealing with the teaching profession. The Incorporated Association of Headmasters is also represented in Parliament. The London teachers finance some of the County Council members; and in the provinces many teachers serve as members of local councils. Lastly, the representatives of many associations are included in the membership of the Consultative Committee.

(2) Legal Aid, Advice and Protection: In consequence of the large number of charges made against teachers, most of them without real foundation but of a serious character, many teachers' associations have found it necessary to establish legal bureaus

so that the best legal advice and assistance may be given to members. The cases may be generally classified as follows: (a) claims for salary and damages for members; (b) alleged assaults by teachers on scholars (corporal punishment); (c) assaults by parents and others on teachers; (d) cases of illegal dismissal; (e) attempted reduction of scales of salaries; (f) libels and defamatory statements. In most cases where the legal adviser of a teachers' association takes up the case a verdict for the teacher is obtained. The National Union of Teachers spends annually about £6,700 ($33,500) in giving free legal assistance to its members. A manual on "The Law Relating to Schools and Teachers" by T. A. Organ, the official barrister of the N. U. T. was published in 1900, but recent radical changes in the Educational Law have caused much of its information to become out of date. The Association of Assistant Masters publish "Legal Information for Assistant Masters" and have established a Legal Defence Fund (which is separately invested) by setting aside 1s. (24c.) of every subscription.

(3) Economic Betterment: The present over-supply of trained and certificated teachers or, rather, the employment of teachers with inadequate qualifications makes it difficult to secure sufficient remuneration for qualified teachers. The Scales of Salaries proposed by the N. U. T. and Association of Assistant Masters, mentioned earlier in the chapter, have not yet found general acceptance. The N. U. T. found it necessary to proclaim a strike in 1906 when the West Ham Authority violated its contracts with the teachers. Through the vigilance of the associations salaries are on the upward grade, although much remains to be done.

(4) Educational and Professional: It is along educational and professional lines that teachers' associations and other educational organizations find the widest outlet for their energies. No organization exists without some specific declaration of educational principles in its "objects." The Workers' Educational Association exists to bring university culture to the doors of the workers; the Parents' Educational Association endeavors to provide a common meeting ground for intercourse between parents, teachers and all who are interested in education; the National Union of Teachers claims that "most of the improvements in

Acts, Codes, and other Regulations on education are due, in the first place, to the Union's suggestions and activities"; the Teachers' Guild has a very complete pedagogic library, a large collection of school books, a reading room, and the nucleus of an educational museum; the work of the various associations on the teaching of the various school subjects, on college entrance examinations, etc. is, however, too wide and too varied for a detailed description to be given.

Most of the teachers' associations are in favor of better professional training of teachers although none of them provide it at first hand. The College of Preceptors, in the year 1873, instituted a professorship (the first of the kind established in England) of the Science and Art of Education as a special subject of instruction; and since that time regular courses of lectures and lessons for teachers have been delivered during each year. In 1895, the Council of the College established a Day Training College for Secondary Teachers (now discontinued). From 1872 onwards, the Headmasters' Conference has urged and advocated the professional training of teachers and it was largely due to the influence of this organization that Cambridge was led to appoint R. H. Quick as professor of education in 1879. One of the objects of the National Education Association is "to obtain facilities for the better training of teachers in unsectarian institutions, under public management." The Froebel Society interests itself in Froebellian teachers and students, providing an agency for teachers and governesses and holding conferences, lectures and classes. The National Union of Teachers has been largely instrumental in obtaining extensions of facilities for the training of teachers and in the restriction of the employment of imperfectly qualified teachers. The Training College Association exists for the purpose of furnishing "opportunities for the discussion of educational problems, especially those relating to the Training of Teachers; and for the expression of a collective opinion thereon."

(5) Insurance and Benevolent Work: This is an important phase of the work of teachers' associations in England. A few associations like the Society of Schoolmasters, the Church Schoolmasters and Schoolmistresses' Benevolent Institution, the Students' Aid Society, and the Schoolmasters' Widows' Fund

are purely charitable institutions. The benevolent funds of other organizations like those of the Assistant Masters' Association and the Teachers' Guild partake also of this nature. The Teachers' Provident Society in connection with the National Union of Teachers is essentially an insurance society. This society deals with life insurance, sick pay, and pensions. Its annual income is £120,000 ($600,000) and its membership is upward of 22,000. Some societies, as for example the Association of Assistant Masters and the Teachers' Guild, obtain special rates for teachers in the general insurance companies.

(6) Tenure: The necessity for a reasonable security of tenure is regarded as fundamental by all teachers' associations. Of all classes of teachers, assistant masters in secondary schools were most insecure with respect to tenure. Only after most expensive litigation and untiring efforts did the Assistant Masters' Association obtain redress of their grievances by the passing of the Endowed Schools (Masters) Act in 1908. The headmistresses and assistant mistresses seem to have agreed on a compromise. They both favor a probationary period, not exceeding a year, before a permanent engagement is entered upon. Part of the legal work of teachers' associations as previously stated is connected with cases of teachers wrongfully dismissed from their posts.

(7) Information Bureau: Information is disseminated among the members of the associations by means of annual reports, leaflets and other publications. In a few cases a bureau of information is organized by the societies. The bureau of information of the Teachers' Guild collects the latest available information about the following: — various examinations; particulars of schools for boys and girls; colleges for men and women; musical colleges, conservatories, schools of art, studios, etc., in England and abroad; technical and domestic education; specialized education such as that connected with the Civil Service and banks; facilities for study — all general information about universities, laboratories, museums, art collections, libraries, etc., in England and abroad; residence, in London, provinces and abroad, for students and teachers. A useful phase of work undertaken by several of the associations is the preparation of a diary of events

or a review of the educational work of the current year. The wider public is reached through the medium of the press.

(8) Appointments Bureau: The work of agency illustrates the harmonious spirit of co-operation that exists between the various professional organizations. A joint scholastic agency for masters in secondary schools is under the direction of the following leading educational associations: — Headmasters' Conference, Incorporated Association of Headmasters, College of Preceptors, Teachers' Guild, Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters, Association of Headmasters of Preparatory Schools, Welsh County Schools Association, Association of Technical Institutions, and the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutes. The agency is not worked with a view to profit, but solely to benefit assistant masters. The rates of commission are fixed as low as possible and the annual amount saved to clients in difference in amount of commissions between this and other agencies is estimated at £500 ($2,500). A similar agency for assistant mistresses is conducted by a joint committee composed of representatives of the following societies:—Teachers' Guild, College of Preceptors, Head Mistresses' Association, Association of Assistant Mistresses, and the Welsh County Schools Association. The rates charged are fixed as low as possible, to cover working expenses only.

(9) Social: The associations by conferences and joint meetings have done much important yet unobtrusive work in breaking down the barriers which exist between different classes of schools and are a serious hindrance to professional unity. The joint work of the associations in the framing of the new teachers' register is doing incalculable benefit in welding the whole of the members of the teaching profession into a solid phalanx.

(10) Publications Department: Besides issuing the annual reports, etc., many of the associations manage publication departments of greater or less magnitude. The publications are in pamphlet form as a rule although some are more pretentious. The Assistant Masters' Association prepared the Statistical Tables which are found on pp. 533-561 of Vol. IV of the Report of the Royal Commission on Secondary Education. This Association also published a " Report of the Joint Committee on the Training

of Teachers." The Association of Headmasters have published an "Elementary Science Syllabus," an advanced "Syllabus of Physics and Chemistry" and a "List of Public Secondary Schools in England and Wales." The Classical Association publish an annual report on the progress of classical studies. The Child Study Society has issued a report based on the examination of 100,000 children. The Moral Instruction League has published graduated moral-lesson text-books, and a "Return on Moral Instruction in Elementary Schools" and other publications. The publication department of the National Union of Teachers is especially active. The annual issues of the "Code" and the "Companion to the code" are probably the most widely circulated educational publications in England, because they provide a collection of exact copies of the texts of the official regulations, which are usually published in pamphlet form. Moreover, they are well edited and purchase of these by a school makes it conform to the official regulation which states that "every school must possess a copy of the Elementary School Code." The N. U. T. Handbook of Education (last edition 1907) is most important to administrators; it contains information about school laws, lists of education authorities, detailed information about higher secondary, technical and elementary education, the training of teachers, school staffing, etc. Most of the associations have "official organs" published weekly, monthly or quarterly. A few of the more important official organs are the "Schoolmaster" (a weekly publication acquired by the National Union of Teachers in Jan. 1909); the "A. M. A." of the Assistant Masters' Association; the "Educational Times" of the College of Preceptors; the "Teachers' Guild Quarterly"; the "Preparatory Schools Review" of the Association of Preparatory Schools; "Secondary Education" of the Private Schools Association; "Modern Language Teaching" of the Modern Language Association; the "Parents' Review" of the Parents' National Education Union; the "Educational Record" of the British and Foreign School Society; "Child Study" of the Child Study Society; "Journal of Hellenic Studies" of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies; "Educational Handbook" of the Educational Handbook Asso-

ciation; "The Highway" of the Workers' Educational Association; the "Mathematical Gazette" of the Mathematical Association; "Child Life" of the Froebel Society; and last, but perhaps most important of all, the "Training College Record" of the Training College Association. The "London Teacher," while not an "official organ" is devoted to the interests of the teaching profession within the Metropolitan area. Many of these magazines are extremely valuable, not only to the members of a particular association, but also to the members of the teaching profession as a whole.

(11 and 12) Pensions and Teachers' Registration are dealt with in the succeeding chapter.

The National Union of Teachers: Because of the outstanding importance of this association, separate treatment is here given to it. The N. U. T., as it is popularly called, is the largest of the teachers' organizations in Great Britain. It was founded in 1870 and was in the first instance a union of several associations of teachers which had been organized on denominational lines; it is now a union of 498 local associations which cover every part of England and Wales. The local associations are combined in 56 county associations. The Union is primarily an elementary teachers' association though within recent years teachers in secondary and higher schools have been admitted. No one is excluded on account of creed, party, sex, or class of school. The subscription is 12s. ($3) per annum. The work of the Union is carried on by an Executive and its seven standing committees. The Union claims that the following reforms are due to the initiative and persistent advocacy of the Union; and its claims have undoubtedly a substantial basis:

"Education Acts and Amendments to Education Acts and Factory Acts.

Appointment of Royal Commissions and Select Committees to consider questions of education.

The extension and liberalisation of curricula.

The abolition of rigid and unnatural classifications of scholars by mere age, and the establishment of flexible, natural, and educational classifications by attainments and capacities.

Improvements in the regulations concerning instruction in singing, drawing, manual training, domestic subjects, and needlework.

The reduction of over-pressure on younger scholars.

The establishment of healthier and more reasonable conditions of study in school.

The adoption of satisfactory schemes of medical inspection.

Improvements in the enforcement of school attendance.

Extensions in the school life of children.

Reductions of the 'Half Time' system.

Improvements in methods of inspection and examination.

The abolition of universal annual examinations of schools.

The abolition of the examination of each scholar.

A more educational graduation in various branches of the curriculum.

The raising of the standards of proficiency required for exemption of children from attendance at school.

The abolition of the principle of payment according to mechanical results.

Reduction in the size of classes.

Amendments in the organization and selection of the Inspectorate.

Amelioration in the curriculum and training of pupil-teachers.

Improvement in the qualifications of teachers.

Restriction of the employment of imperfectly qualified teachers.

Improvements in the curriculum and training of King's scholars.

Extension of facilities for the training of teachers.

The raising of the standard of proficiency required from candidates for the teacher's certificate. (In connection with the training of teachers the executive has called into conference the highest expert authorities.)

Abolition of an inept teachers' register, and legal establishment of powers for the profession to create a proper teachers' register.

The new modelling of codes of regulations for day and evening schools.

Alterations in rules mistakenly laid down by school boards, local education committees, and other bodies of school managers.

The election or appointment of experts in teaching on local legislation and governing bodies for education."

The N. U. T. also conducts an Examination Board. This Board was established in 1895, and since that time has examined 110,000 candidates in various examinations. The principal examinations of the N. U. T. are for teachers' diplomas in woodwork, metal work, needlework, dressmaking and music; and for diplomas in various commercial and handicraft subjects. The

other activities of the Union along lines of provident work, standardization of salaries, legal work, publications, etc. were mentioned earlier in the chapter. The importance of this association in the educational life of England can hardly be overestimated.[24]

[24] The information about Teachers' Associations and other Educational Organizations has been largely culled from prospectuses, official organs and annual reports of the various institutions concerned. In addition, the following have been found valuable:

Balfour, Graham: Educational Systems of Great Britain and Ireland.
Schoolmasters Year Book and Directory, 1909.
Public Schools Year Book, 1909.
Girls' School Year Book, 1909.
School Government Chronicle Handbooks, especially IV and VI.
School Government Chronicle: files of; especially numbers from 1900 onwards.
Journal of Education: files of; especially number for Jan., 1908.
Schoolmaster: files of.
School World: files of.
N. U. T. publications.

CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHER AS A CIVIL SERVANT

In treating of the history of training teachers (Chapter II) it was pointed out that in the interval between the Minutes of 1846 and the Revised Code of 1862, the teacher was, in a very real sense, a servant of the state. Not only did he receive a pension when old age or sickness incapacitated him, but he also received that part of his salary due to him for training the pupil-teachers under his charge direct from the central office in London. The Revised Code served this close connection, although salaries, in part, continued to be paid from the central office in the form of grants. But it is only since the resuscitation of the pension scheme[1] and the inauguration of a teachers' register[2] (temporarily discontinued) that the earlier significance of the phrase "the teacher as a civil servant" has been restored.

Pensions for Teachers: The main features of the English pension scheme for elementary teachers are its automatic operation, its compulsory character, and its joint financial support by government grants and assessments from the teachers.

The scheme came into operation after the passing of the Superannuation Act in 1898. The provisions are of three kinds—the Annuity, the Superannuation Allowance, and the Disablement Allowance. The scheme is limited to certificated teachers. Service in schools which counts towards the pension is known as recorded service. No teacher can record service after reaching sixty-five years of age—the age when the certificate automatically lapses—unless special permission to continue is granted by the Board. Recorded service is thus limited as to the time it may continue and as to the kinds of teachers who may serve in it. Although the Act was named the Superannuation Act for elementary teachers, other classes of teachers such as certificated teachers employed on the staffs of training colleges, pupil-

[1] Elementary School Teachers' (Superannuation) Act, 1898; 61 and 62, Vict. c. 57.

[2] Board of Education Act, 1899.

teacher centres, central classes for pupil-teachers, or preparatory classes for pupil-teachers, or as organizing teachers, were not expressly debarred participation in the benefits of the scheme. However, in Circular 563, issued in 1907, the Board states that the operation of the act will be rigidly confined "to (certificated) teachers in elementary schools, in certified schools for blind, deaf, defective or epileptic children, and in certified reformatory and industrial schools." In all cases a certificated teacher, not serving in a school of the above type and who is already having his service recorded, will continue to be recognized as a prospective pensioner provided that the institution in which he is engaged continues to be recognized by the Board and subject to its inspection. This procedure has met with much opposition from certain quarters, but the action of the Board is justified in some respects inasmuch it was clearly not the intention of Parliament in 1898 to establish a system of state-aided pensions for the teaching staffs of secondary schools.

The Annuity: The annuity becomes payable to the teacher on attainment of the age of sixty-five years, whether he (or she) be then teaching or not. The amount of annuity is dependent upon the number of annual contributions to the "deferred annuity fund," no matter how few or broken these contributions may have been. The amount of contribution is dependent upon the average salary of the teachers and is increased by five shillings for men and four shillings for women for each ten per cent increase of average wage. To the original contributions of £3 ($15) for men and £2 ($10) for women, one increase of five shillings for the men and two increases of four shillings for the women have been made. The present annual contributions, therefore, are £3-5s-0d for men and £2-8s-0d for women. These sums are not paid directly by the teacher; they are deducted from the Parliamentary grants to the local education authority by whom the teacher is employed. The teacher is given a receipt and is credited with the amount paid in this indirect fashion. Since the local authority receives from the government a grant which is less than is earned by the sum total of all the contributions of its teachers to the deferred annuity fund, the tendency will be to reduce salaries to obtain compensation for the loss. This has been done, but only to a surprisingly small extent.

This then is the contributory portion of the scheme. The amount of annuity is fixed by annuity tables issued by the treasury as occasion demands. In no case can the money be drawn before the age of sixty-five is reached or obtained in a lump sum by the teacher or his relations. Only the interest from the deferred annuity fund is used to pay the annuities. If for any reason the interest becomes insufficient to meet the demands for pensions, new annuity tables will be drawn up. The annuity tables in use at present are given in appendix D.[3]

The Superannuation Allowance: The superannuation allowance is the contribution made by the state towards the total pension granted to teachers. It is paid, however, only to those teachers who contribute to the deferred annuity fund. Such contributions must have been paid for at least half the number of years the teacher has been certificated, or the allowance is forfeited. The rate of payment is ten shillings $2.50) for each complete year of recorded service. Thus, if a man has contributed to the deferred annuity fund from twenty to sixty-five years of age he is entitled to an annual superannuation allowance of £22-10s-0d $112.50). The sum added to the annuity for which he has made his contributions amounts to a total pension of £61-18s-8d ($309.60). This is the greatest possible pension for a man. For a woman the greatest pension is £42-5s-8d ($211.36). For the teacher who rendered service prior to 1899, i.e., before it could be recorded, an augmented rate of allowance is provided. The annuity, however, remains dependent upon his contributions—the fewer the contributions, the lower the annuity. Both the superannuation allowance and the annuity are liable to forfeiture, suspension, or reduction in cases of misconduct.

The Disablement Allowance: The disablement is also contributed by the state and is given to teachers who, having served not less than ten years of recorded service, and not less than half the years which have elapsed since they became certificated, become so infirm in mind or body as to be incapable of following their ordinary vocations. The amount of disablement allowance is according to the following scale:

(a) "If the teacher is a man, twenty pounds ($100) for ten complete years of recorded service, with the addition of one

[3] From elementary teachers' Superannuation Act, rules, annuity tables and memorandum, pp. 22–23.

pound ($5) for each complete additional year of recorded service; and

(b) If the teacher is a woman fifteen pounds ($75) for ten complete years of recorded service, with the addition of thirteen shillings ($3.25) for each complete additional year of recorded service."[4]

Thus a man who serves thirty years before he breaks down receives an annual disablement allowance of £40 ($200). Under no circumstances, however, can the disablement allowance exceed the total annual sum which the teacher might obtain from an annuity and superannuation allowance under the Act, by continuing to serve until the age of sixty-five years.[5] There is a triennial reconsideration of all disablement allowances by the treasury, when the teacher must produce the medical evidence to show that he is still qualified to retain it.

On March 31st, 1908, there were 370 men and 1,071 women receiving disablement allowances at an annual cost to the imperial exchequer of £40,125 ($200,625). The proportions for men and women were £13,241 and £26,884 respectively. The total number of annuities and superannuation allowances in force on the same date were 831 for men and 598 for women. The annual cost of these were £30,763 ($153,815) and £16,628 ($83,140) for men and women respectively, or a grand total of £47,391 ($236,955). About twenty-nine thirtieths of this amount was provided by exchequer grants. The total cost during the year was £87,416 for 2,870 pensions, an average amount of £30-10s-0d ($152.50) per pension.[6]

There is at present no state aided or state controlled pension system for English secondary school teachers. For Welsh teachers, the Central Welsh Board has established a scheme of retiring allowances which applies to the whole of Wales and to all teachers in schools established under the Welsh Intermediate Education Act of 1889. In several large English secondary schools fairly adequate schemes are in force but these are strictly limited to the particular schools in question. For the smaller schools such an arrangement is obviously impossible. In 1904 at a joint conference of representatives of the Incorporated Association of

[4] Superannuation Act, 1898, and explanatory memorandum, p. 27.
[5] 61 and 62, Vict. c. 57, section 2 (IX c.)
[6] Statistics of Public Education, 1906–7–8; Table 119.

Headmasters and the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters, a small sub-committee was appointed to deal with the whole question of pensions and retiring allowances. Realizing that a national system was a very remote possibility, the committee recommended that education authorities should be urged to establish schemes for themselves. Three possible schemes were outlined. In all of the schemes the contributions were to be jointly met by the assistant master and his employers and were to be paid over to an insurance company which then dealt with them in the ordinary way of business. Few authorities have as yet acted on the suggestions of the sub-committee, the probable feeling being that assistant secondary school teachers are becoming more and more the servants of the state and therefore should be included in a national scheme as were the elementary school teachers in 1898.[7]

The Teachers' Register: The teachers' register is at present the cause of a serious controversy between the central authority and the various teachers' associations in England. The formation of a teachers' register in alphabetical order was one of the duties assigned to the consultative committee as established by the Board of Education Act of 1899. Unfortunately, the register as drawn up was in alphabetical order, but in *two columns*—A and B — one for elementary, the other for secondary school teachers.

This division of teachers into two classes has met with great opposition from the elementary teachers. Further, the register was not fulfilling the main object for which it was established, namely, the encouragement of secondary teachers to undergo a course of formal training for their profession. According to the Teachers' Registration Council report for 1905 less than 20 men and less than 400 women had undergone a course of training since the foundation of the register in 1902[8] Accordingly the obligation to frame, form or keep a Teachers' Register was discontinued by the Education Act (Administrative Provisions) of 1907, "provided that it shall be lawful for His Majesty by Order in Council to constitute a registration council representative of the teaching profession, to whom shall be assigned the duty of forming and keeping a register of such teachers as satisfy the

[7] I. A. H. M. Reports 1904 and 1905.

[8] Scheme for a New Teachers' Registration Council, 1908.

conditions of registration established by the council for the time being, and who shall apply to be registered."[9]

The abolition of the register was considered a grave injustice, amounting to a breach of faith, to all those teachers who had registered, and the public confidence in the stability of the policy of the Board was certainly severely shaken. It was pointed out by many teachers' associations that the register had tended to promote the solidarity of the teaching profession, had raised the standard of qualifications of teachers in all kinds of secondary schools, and had given a prestige to the teachers' calling which had been most helpful in securing a good quality of teacher. The register had provided a state guarantee of efficiency; its abolition left secondary teachers the only professional men and women for whose competency no public authority vouched. Further, it was contended that it had encouraged the training of secondary teachers although the period of trial was too short to give very definite results.

The teachers' associations, after a series of conferences, unanimously adopted a scheme for a New Registration Council. The registration was to be wholly controlled by the Council. A deputation waited upon Sir Robert Morant, the secretary of the Board, with the object of furthering their plan, but the scheme, although fairly representative in character, was refused sanction because such important sections of the teaching profession as teachers in kindergartens, women teachers of technical subjects, teachers of physical training, domestic subjects, and so forth, were given no representation.

The next step was to summon a more representative conference of associations. Accordingly, a conference was summoned by the Federal Council for November 13th, 1909. It was attended by representatives of all the thirty-seven associations of teachers which were essentially "general in scope and not merely local in character." Representatives of associations of teachers of special subjects were not invited for it was contended that they were sufficiently represented by the other associations. The conference discussed and then voted upon a series of resolutions, the outcome of which was the framing of a new registration council. The principle of membership of the council is repre-

[9] Education (Administrative Provisions) Act, 1907, ss. 16, 17 and 18.

sentation by groups of associations. The suggested scheme which was almost unanimously adopted is as follows:

SUGGESTED SCHEME

Number of Representatives for the First Registration Council

Elementary School Branch

		Representatives	
1.	National Union of Teachers	(64,459)[10]	*six*
2.	National Association of Head Teachers	(5,030)	*one*
3.	National Federation of Assistant Teachers	(18,755)	*two*
4.	National Association of Teachers of the Deaf	(325)	

Secondary School Branch

1.	Head Masters' Conference	(108)	*one*
2.	Head Masters' Association	(519)	*one*
3.	Head Mistresses' Association	(286)	*one*
4.	Assistant Mistresses' Association	(940)	*one*
5.	Assistant Masters' Association	(2,680)	*one*
6.	Association of Preparatory Schools	(436)	*one*
7.	Private Schools' Association	(about 500)	*one*
8.	College of Preceptors	(about 1,000)	*one*
9.	Teachers' Guild	(about 3,300)	*one*

Technological Branch

(Technical Schools, Schools of Art, etc.)

1.	Association of Technical Institutions	(133)	*one*
2.	Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions	(about 800)	*one*
Art 3.	National Society of Art Masters	(324)	*one*
Art 4.	Art Teachers' Guild	(216)	
Art 5.	Royal Drawing Society (Incorporated)	(708)	
Music 6.	Royal Academy of Music		*one*
Music 7.	Royal College of Music		
Music 8.	Union of Graduates in Music, Incorporated		
Music 9.	Union of Directors of Music in Secondary Schools		
Music 10.	Incorporated Society of Musicians		
Music 11.	Guildhall School of Music		
Music 12.	Royal College of Organists		
Commerce 13.	National Shorthand Association (Incorporated), Teachers Section	(about 1,000)	*one*
Commerce 14.	Society of Certificated Teachers of Shorthand	(200)	
Commerce 15.	Association of Book-keeping Teachers	(193)	
Commerce 16.	Incorporated Society of Commercial Teachers	(80)	
17.	Association af Teachers of Domestic Science	(1,150)	*one*
18.	National Association of Manual Training Teachers	(about 1,000)	*one*
19.	Educational Handwork Association	(nearly 1,200)	

[10] Numbers in brackets refer to membership.

Physical Education	20.	Incorporated Gymnastic Teachers' Institute	(175)	*one*
	21.	British College of Physical Education	(280)	
	22.	Ling Association	(185)	
	23.	National Society of Physical Education	(204)	
	24.	Union of Teachers of the Deaf on the Pure Oral System	(113)	*one*
	25.	College of Teachers of the Blind	(88)	
	26.	Smith Training College of the Royal College for the Blind	(Number not stated)	

Associations not Included in A. 1 (a), (b), (c), etc.

			Representatives	
(1)	1.	Froebel Society	(2,600)	*one*
	2.	Training College Association	(369)	*one*
	3.	Teachers' Training Association	(73)	
	4.	Welsh County Schools Association	(96)	*one*
	5.	Conference of Catholic Colleges	(39)	

(2) A certain number co-opted by the Registration Council.
(3) A certain number nominated by the Crown.

It is suggested that the ultimate constitution of the Registration Council would depend upon the character which the Register finally assumes.[11] Each member of the council is to hold office for three years; one-third retiring at the end of each year. The register is to satisfy the statutory requirements contained in the Education Act of 1907, namely, "the register shall contain the names and addresses of all registered teachers in alphabetical order in one column, together with the date of their registration, and such further statements as regards their attainments, training, and experience as the council may from time to time determine that it is desirable to set forth." The scheme does not include Scotland or Ireland. The moneys paid for registration on the old register are to be transferred to the new registration council. The fee for registration is to be uniform for all and is not to exceed a guinea ($5.25). This revised scheme is now awaiting the legalization of an Order in Council, but since there is complete agreement upon the fundamental propositions of the measure among the teachers' associations it is difficult to see how such sanction can be withheld. The whole of the proceedings of the past two years have shown in unmistakable fashion the professional solidarity of the teachers of England and Wales.

[11] Registration of Teachers: Report of a Conference, Nov. 13th, 1909, pp. 38 and 39.

CHAPTER VIII

STATISTICAL INTERPRETATION AND COMPARISON; SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A. Statistical Interpretation and Comparison

England and Wales had in 1908 a population of 35,348,780.[1] The number of elementary scholars was 6,016,362 distributed with respect to age as follows:[2]

Ages	*Number of Scholars*
3 — 5	432,048
5 — 7	1,294,661
7 — 12	3,207,793
12 — 15	1,074,168
Over 15	7,692

The large number of children between three and five years of age is a noticeable feature. The Board of Education, acting on the advice of the Consultative Committee, has taken steps to reduce this number. The accommodation provided, as shown below, was in excess of the number of children in attendance.[3]

Type of School	*Number*	*Accommodation*
Council Schools	7,408	3,766,824
Voluntary Schools	13,213	3,321,170
Total	20,621	7,087,994

The council schools have all been created since the Elementary Education Act of 1870. They are increasing in number at a

[1] C. R. 1909; I, 363.
[2] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8. Table 3.
[3] Ibid. Table 1.

much greater rate than the voluntary schools. The average number of scholars on the register during the school year was 5,988,474; the average attendance 5,292,150. The teaching force for elementary schools numbered 177,628. This gives 29.8 scholars in average attendance per teacher, or in terms of the average number of scholars on the registers during the school year — 33.7 per teacher. This compares very favorably indeed with the number of scholars per teacher in the Prussian elementary schools (59.2)[4] and is almost as low as the number per teacher in American elementary schools (32.5).[5] The unsatisfactory state of affairs in Prussia is due to the school regulations which permit a teacher in an ungraded school to have eighty children under his charge. If this number is exceeded, or if the school is not large enough, the pupils may be divided into two sections, each attending one half day. When the number of pupils exceeds a hundred, the decree recommends the employment of a second teacher. As late as 1908 a teacher had sole charge of 200 children.[6] The 32.5 scholars per teacher for America is the number in average attendance for the cities and villages which reported. For the whole country the figure might be slightly lower.

The types and sex of the adult elementary school teachers are indicated below:

Type of Teachers	*Men*	*Women*
Certificated teachers	31,205	59,923
Uncertificated teachers	5,320	38,946
Supplementary teachers	195	18,437
Provisional Assistant teachers	351	1,530
Total	37,071	118,836

Of the total teaching force 23.7% are men. As in all other civilized countries, the tendency in England and Wales is to replace men by women teachers. The percentage of men teachers who are certificated is 84.4; of the women teachers 50.4 per

[4] Statistisches Jahrbuch für den Preussischen Staat, 1908.
[5] C. R. 1908, II, 409–410.
[6] Bericht über die Deutsche Lehrer-versammlung, Dortmund, 1908.

cent are certificated. Only 48,776 or 53.5 per cent of the 91,128 certificated elementary teachers are trained, i.e., have satisfactorily completed a training college course. The remainder became certificated merely by examination.[7]

The force of trained certificated teachers is produced by the 79 training colleges in England and Wales. The numbers of men and women students in residence in 1908 were 3,245 and 7,270 respectively — a total of 10,515. The number who graduated (that is, completed satisfactorily the course of training) was 4,439 of whom 1,295 were men and 3,144 were women. In order to have every teacher trained and certificated the average period of active service of these 4,439 graduates would have to be at least forty years. The present period of active service is less than half this number of years, consequently, more than twice the number of training college graduates are annually required before this ideal standard can be reached.

The decline of the pupil-teacher system is only faintly indicated in the latest available statistics (1907-8) of the Board of Education. For the years ending in 1906, 1907, and 1908 respectively, the numbers of pupil-teachers in England and Wales were 25,557; 26,745; and 22,403. The large number in 1906-7 is partly due to the overlapping of a number of three year pupil-teachers from 1904. Later statistics will show an acceleration in the rate of decrease of the pupil-teacher. The bursar is, of course, taking his place.[8]

The secondary schools have not been under the jurisdiction of the Board long enough for the secondary system to become national either in scope or character. In England alone, there were in 1907-8 only 736 secondary schools on the grant list. The number of scholars in attendance was 124,463 — 68,104 boys and 56,359 girls — for the which 7,581 teachers were provided. This gives an average of 16.42 scholars per teacher. England suffers severely from excessive elimination of pupils from her secondary schools in spite of the fact that 27 per cent of the total number of pupils came from public elementary schools and enjoyed free tuition. The distribution of secondary scholars according to age is given below:

[7] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8. Tables 5 and 8.
[8] Ibid. Table 60.

Age	*Number*
Under 9	5,139
9 — 10	3,849
10 — 11	6,159
11 — 12	11,758
12 — 13	19,978
13 — 14	24,113
14 — 15	23,094
15 — 16	17,947
16 — 17	8,487
17 — 18	2,755
18 — 19	833
19 and over	351
Total	124,463

The mode for the average length of school life after reaching the age of twelve years was 2.5 to 3 years. This means that more scholars left when between 15.5 and 16.0 years of age than at any other age.

For secondary schools on the grant lists and pupil-teacher centres, the following qualifications were held by the teachers on the staffs :[9]

	Men	*Women*
Graduates holding diplomas	927	898
Graduates not holding diplomas	1,625	676
Non-graduates holding diplomas	635	1,188
Non-graduates not holding diplomas	1,150	1,404
Total	4,337	4,166

When the government scheme for the training of secondary teachers has been in operation a few more years, and when the teachers' register is once more effective, the professional qualifications of secondary teachers will undoubtedly give a much better showing than is now the case.

The financing of public education in England is the joint undertaking of the central and local authorities. The central authority receives and distributes the various Parliamentary grants. These grants are made from the Consolidated Fund created by William Pitt in the year 1787.[10] Into this fund,

[9] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8. Tables 45 and 58.

[10] 27 Geo. III. c. 13.

which is deposited in the Bank of England and the Bank of Ireland, are paid all moneys collected by the revenue officers of the United Kingdom. The fund is used by the government in very much the same way that a private banking account is used by an individual. The amount to be drawn from the Consolidated Fund for the purposes of education is determined by Parliament at the time of the presentation of the budget. In 1907-8 the Board of Education received by Parliamentary vote the sum of £13,276,859 ($66,384,295).[11]

This sum was expended as follows:[12]

	Pounds	*Dollars*
Administration, Inspection and Examination	423,222	2,116,110
Public Elementary Schools	11,028,133	55,140,665
Allowances and Pensions	101,520	507,600
Training of Teachers	428,851	2,144,255
Secondary Schools	679,612	3,398,060
Technical Institutions and Schools of Art	456,573	2,282,865
Scholarships, Museums, etc	158,900	794,500
Total	13,276,811	66,384,055

The following table (VIII) gives in summarized fashion the financial history of the elementary school since 1873:

TABLE VIII

INCOME FOR VARIOUS YEARS OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY DAY AND EVENING SCHOOLS INSPECTED FOR ANNUAL GRANTS[13]

Sources of Income	1873	1879	1884	1900	1908
(a) Government Grants	£772,072	£1,828,703	£2,515,776	£8,002,981	£11,380,781
(b) Rates	61,209	636,792	915,474	2,957,717	9,491,702
(c) Voluntary Subscriptions	539,502	754,134	734,128	812,104	.....
(d) Endowment	73,405	136,079	157,124	156,012	21,133
(e) Fees and Books	688,296	1,372,365	1,734,115	262,135	62,025
(f) Other Sources	31,562	48,841	64,922	144,037	206,704
(g) Total Income	2,166,046	4,776,914	6,121,539	12,336,986	21,162,353
(h) Total Expenditure	2,206,640	4,773,825	6,131,887	12,453,006	21,162,353
(i) Average Attendance	1,528,453	2,647,525	3,297,558	4,872,465	5,292,150

[11] The education grant for 1910-11 is £14,064,677 ($70,323,385).

[12] Statistics of Public Education, 1907–8. Table 117.

[13] The table has been compiled from an answer given by the President of the Board of Education to a question put by Mr. Spicer, June 14, 1906, together with the material available in Table 130 of the 1907–8 Statistics.

The table shows in striking fashion the increasing financial burden which is thrust upon the local community. Since the Education Act of 1902, the local education rates have increased by leaps and bounds. This administrative difficulty has been the subject of many memorials and deputations within the past few years but as yet no relief has been granted by Parliament. Since 1873 the total cost of education has increased about ten-fold; that portion of the cost contributed by rates has increased to one hundred and fifty-six times its original size.

In America there are sixteen and one-half millions of children of school age (7-18) with approximately 500,000 teachers to teach them. In 1903-4 the following institutions offered more or less complete courses of training for teachers:—180 state normal schools, 50 city training schools, 100 private institutions of normal school type, 230 colleges and universities, 449 private high schools and 273 public high schools. The training given is obviously extremely variable both with regard to its extent and its quality. These provisions have sufficed to train from 15-20% of the teaching force. The other 80-85% were prepared by private study and tested wholly by examination and experience. There are almost as many standards in these things as there are separate examinations. In the New England states a body of laymen constituting the school committee, often decide as to the qualifications of those whom they wish to employ; in the middle west certification by county examination is frequently met with; in a few of the states a state-wide certificate is granted for success in an examination; a few large cities super-impose examinations of their own before certificates to teach are granted. The certificates are usually for a limited period only; a certificate for life is somewhat rare and is usually difficult to obtain. There are usually three or four grades of certificates and the highest has a longer period of validity than the others. The lack of uniformity, the low standards of certification, and the absence of inter-state recognition are probably the most serious defect of the certification of teachers in America.[14]

When the English and American systems of training teachers are compared, one of the first differences noted is that of the degree of centralization in the two countries. The government

[14] Cubberley: Certification of Teachers; in 5th year book of National Society for the Scientific Study of Education.

in England has firm control over the training and certification of elementary teachers and is rapidly assuming responsibility for the training of teachers other than elementary; in America the national government has practically nothing to do with teacher training or certification and in no single state of the Union is there the degree of central control that obtains in England. Only Massachusetts approximates the centralization of England. This central control in England is sufficiently powerful to maintain a high standard for certification, yet it is elastic enough to permit of the greatest possible freedom both with respect to the curriculum and the methods of teaching in the training colleges.

The best American normal schools are far superior to the English ones; the worst are far inferior to anything that England permits. The private normal of America, while filling a great gap in the inadequate provision for the professional training of teachers, is open to much abuse. But the university education departments of America are undoubtedly the best in the world. Nowhere is there such pioneer work in scientific education being performed; nowhere is the greater freedom in experimentation allowed. England is only just awakening to the fact that a science as well as an art of education is possible—a science as true to its canons and principles as are the natural sciences themselves.

The absence of central control in America makes possible great laxity, and even abuses, in the certification of teachers. The fear of abuse and the absence of standards are probably at the basis of the complex system of certification and the comparative lack of inter-state recognition of certificates. In course of time there will probably be a central authority which will standardize the certificates for the whole of the United States. English certificates are valid for life or rather until the pensioning age of sixty-five is reached. They are not so uneven in value as American certificates.

The curriculum and methods of teaching are more scientific in America than in England. Especially is this true along professional lines. There is in English training colleges a lamentable absence of good courses in educational psychology and in the history of education. Yet England, ever susceptible to new currents of thought, will probably be profoundly influenced by

the new educational scientific education of Germany and America. Aforetime Herbartianism, chiefly through the work of Professor Rein at the University Training Department, Jena, had great influence upon English teacher training. The influence of America has also been very strong. Of this there have been three stages, viz., (1) the influence of the work of Horace Mann in Massachusetts; (2) the influence of Dr. Sheldon, head of the Training College, Oswego, N. Y.; and (3) the influence of the great schools of education which have developed within recent years, especially those of Chicago under John Dewey, of Clark under G. Stanley Hall, and of Teachers College of Columbia University under no one outstanding leader. The increasing use of the superior American text books of education in the English training colleges is most hopeful from the standpoint of material; a more moderate use of the lecture and the introduction of the spirit of 'give and take' between teacher and taught as found in the best of the American recitations would be most significant from the standpoint of method.

American normal schools could learn much from the English training colleges with regard to a healthy development of college athletics. The influence of the social life of the English common room is a factor in the training of the English teachers which is difficult to evaluate correctly but which must affect most profoundly the students who come within its sphere.

America is fortunate in having no religious difficulty in her schools. The cultivation of the religious side of the life of a people is of supreme importance, although the unbiassed observer must realize that individuals are so fundamentally divided upon questions of religious belief, that it is almost impossible for the state to undertake to teach religion in the schools. The logical solution is the complete secularization of the school, but this must be coupled with a strengthening of the work of the churches in all fields. English training colleges are fast breaking away from denominational control—a separation which has been accelerated by the rapid growth of the undenominational day training colleges.

In the matter of state provision for the training of teachers other than elementary, England is far ahead of the States. The recent introduction of a state controlled and state subsidized

system of training secondary teachers marks a new era in the training of teachers in England. England and Wales have a national system of pensions for elementary teachers. It is at present limited to elementary teachers, but will probably be extended ultimately to all teachers. America is only just beginning to consider this great question of insurance for old age and disability.

B. Summary and Conclusion

(1) The great degree of real freedom enjoyed by the students and teaching staff of the training colleges is one of the chief characteristics of the training of teachers in England. With respect to the curriculum the Board of Education simply fixes the lower limit and offers suggestions for courses, but the faculties of the training colleges are perfectly free to reject the government schemes in favor of schemes of their own. As to method, the government offers but little advice and imposes no restriction whatsoever. The unpedagogical lecture method ought to give way to real teaching in which there is proper interaction and interchange of ideas between teacher and taught.

(2) The prolongation of the period of secondary school training to the age of seventeen years by the institution of the bursary system is a step in the right direction, for it ensures a more thorough academic preparation of the teachers for elementary schools. The possibility of a subsequent year as student-teacher is excellent from the point of view of practical experience. The extension of the period of practice teaching from six weeks to three months for all teachers without practical experience previous to entrance into college insures that all trained teachers will have some acquaintance with schoolroom procedure and discipline before entering on their life's work. The bursar and student-teacher method of giving the preliminary training to teachers would seem to be a compromise between the American and the older English pupil-teacher system of training.

(3) The apprenticeship system of training, which was carried to an extreme in the pupil-teacher system, seems to be giving way to a more scientific laboratory method, although suitable laboratories in the shape of efficient practising schools are seldom provided. This unsatisfactory state of affairs the government

has decided to remedy. No new training college will be recognized unless provision is made for practice teaching in schools under the immediate control of the college, and all existing training colleges are recommended to provide themselves with demonstration schools so soon as is convenient.

(4) The loop-holes of escape from training, or rather the easy access to the schools without training, is one of the most serious defects of English education. To allow upwards of 18,000 women, whose only qualifications are that they have been successfully vaccinated and have attained the age of eighteen years, to enter the schools as supplementary teachers shows a widespread acceptance of a qualification which is altogether too low. This number, in view of the recent restrictive regulations of the Board will undoubtedly decrease rapidly until in 1914 they will only be found in infant schools and in the lowest grade of rural elementary schools. Tendencies of a similar nature are seen in the fact that certification without college training is granted for success in a government examination and in the employment, in addition to the supplementary teachers mentioned above, of large numbers of uncertificated teachers.

(5) The determination of the government to demand that a portion of the teaching staff of a secondary school shall in future be trained and the grant of a sum of money for the purpose marks a new era in secondary education. The present grant of £5,000 ($25,000) for this purpose is absurdly inadequate, but no doubt it will be rapidly increased in the near future.

(6) Similar in character are the provisions the government has made for the training of teachers of domestic subjects, and of teachers for special schools for the blind, deaf and defective. A real effort to grapple with the trying social and educational problems is now being made.

(7) The failure of the government to carry through its regulations of 1906, which precluded the imposition of any religious test whatsoever upon students desirous of entering a denominational training college, indicates the immense power the churches wield over educational affairs in England. The government's demands have recently (1907) been reduced from 100 per cent to 50 per cent of free places. The latter figure has been accepted,

though originally great opposition was manifested to it by the religious bodies which control the several denominational training colleges. The religious difficulty bids fair to die a natural death through the rapid rise of the undenominational day training college. Practically all the increase of facilities for training has been of the day training college type. The denominational institutions have been practically stationary since 1890.

(8) The state support of all forms of education is an excellent feature of English education. No parish is without its school, and no large area is without its government supported training college. The control exercised by the government over the various educational institutions by means of its system of inspection is adequate without being oppressive. The period of service required of the teacher in return for the free training he receives is also a reasonable demand.

(9) The academic training which the prospective teacher receives in an English training college is decidedly superior to the professional. The weakest part of the program of studies is the lack of attention to psychology and the history of education. Only three year students receive instruction in the history of education, while psychology is taught, for the most part, in a perfunctory and non-functioning manner. There is also a very real need of facilities for a further and more scientific study of education after the completion of a training college course.

(10) The practice teaching, which is only of six or eight weeks duration, is another weak point of the English system. There is perhaps a tendency to over-emphasize the acquisition of a mechanical and superficial ability at the expense of a more rational comprehension of the fundamental principles of the teaching process. Formerly the preliminary practice teaching, which was obtained by the student during his pupil-teachership, diminished the need for long periods of practice teaching in college. The introduction of the bursar system will necessitate the paying of much greater attention to this important branch of training. Fundamental changes in the course of study will have to be made in order to provide for the three months of practice teaching demanded by the Board of all students who enter the training colleges without previous practical experience.

(11) The kingdom-wide validity of the teachers' certificate which terminates only at the pension age of sixty-five undoubtedly contributes towards an excellent professional spirit among the teachers. This professional spirit is also fostered by the various teachers' associations which play such an important part in the educational affairs of the country.

(12) While the present system of training teachers is open to serious criticism from several points of view it cannot be denied that the possibilities of future development are encouraging in the highest degree for the future progress of English education.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ENGLISH COURSE FOR PRELIMINARY EDUCATION OF TEACHERS, 1909

The Board desire it to be clearly understood that the appended Scheme is given merely by way of illustration, and is not to be regarded as comprising more than a few specimens of the numerous texts which may advantageously be studied.

Year of Course	Texts: Poets	Texts: Prose Authors
I.	English Ballads (early and modern). Macaulay's Lays (Roman and English). Ancient Mariner. Longfellow (shorter poems). Cowper (shorter poems). Patriotic songs and lyrics.	Robinson Crusoe. Stories of Heroes (Greek, Roman, Scandinavian, Teutonic, Frankish, Arthurian). Tales from the Faerie Queen. Gatty—Parables from Nature.
II.	Longfellow (longer poems, *e. g.*, Evangeline). Scott (*e.g.*, Lady of the Lake). Patriotic Poems (*e.g.*, collections such as Lyra Heroica.)	Pilgrim's Progress. Selections from Don Quixote, Froissart, Malory or Gulliver's Travels. H. Kingsley—Tales of Old Travel. Prescott—Selections from Peru or Mexico. Scott (*e. g.*, Talisman, Ivanhoe, Quentin Durward). Morris—Story of the Glittering Plain.
III.	Simpler poems from one or more of the following:—Milton, Gray, Wordsworth, Tennyson, Matthew Arnold; or from selections such as the Golden Treasury. Shakespeare (Julius Caesar, Merchant of Venice, As You Like It). Goldsmith (Traveller and Deserted Village). Morris (select stories from the Earthly Paradise).	Macaulay — Biographical Essays. Biographical Sketches of Great Characters (*e.g.*, Charlemagne, Alfred, Sir T. More, Queen Elizabeth, Raleigh, Cromwell, Frederick the Great, Dr. Johnson, Washington, Napoleon, Nelson. Voyages and Travels (*e.g.*, selections from Hakluyt, Purchas, Dampier, Anson, Cook). Scott (*e.g.*, Waverley, The Antiquary, Old Mortality).

APPENDIX A—*Continued*

Year of Course	Texts: Poets	Texts: Prose Authors
IV.	More advanced poems taken from Chaucer (Prologue), Shakespeare, Milton, Spencer, Pope, Wordsworth, Tennyson; or from collections such as the Golden Treasury (First or Second Series). Shakespeare (Histories, Comedies or easier Tragedies).	Plutarch's Lives (Langhorne). Kinglake—Eōthen. Borrow (*e.g.*, Lavengro). Modern Prose Comedies (*e. g.*, Goldsmith or Sheridan). Selections from British Essayists (*e.g.*, Addison, Goldsmith, Lamb). Macaulay—Essays or selected chapters of the History. Froude—Selected Short Studies. Ruskin (Sesame and Lilies).

APPENDIX B

Key to Diagram

This diagram (see page 153) is intended to represent the various ways in which a person may proceed through the different stages of the teaching profession.

The rectangles represent the status of the teacher at the various stages of his or her career; the dotted lines represent the several means of progress of the teacher through these stages; the letters enclosed in circles represent the examinations which the teacher has to pass in this process.

It will be observed that the lines leading from the rectangles representing the early stages of the teaching career meet in an ellipse, from which other lines proceed leading to the rectangles representing the later stages. It is intended by this to represent the fact that teachers who have passed through these earlier stages by any one of the alternative routes indicated by the dotted lines, may then proceed to the later stages either by entering a Training College, whether as an ordinary or a Degree Student, or by becoming Uncertificated Teachers. The Examinations to be passed in each of these three cases are shown on the diagram by their appropriate letters. It should be observed that Bursars and Pupil-Teachers may have passed one of these Examinations during their period of recognition as such, and that Student-Teachers will have done so, as a rule, previous to the beginning of their recognition.

The minimum age at which intending teachers passing through a Secondary School Course and going direct to a Training College can pass each stage is shown on the left-hand side of the Diagram; for those passing through the Pupil-Teacher course it is shown on the right-hand side.

The various Examinations are indicated in the Diagram by the following letters:

(A)=One of the Examinations mentioned in Appendix I. a.
(B)=One of the Examinations mentioned in Appendix I. b.
(D)=One of the Examinations mentioned in Appendix I. d.
(E)=An approved Final Examination, conducted wholly or partly by a University.
(F)=The Board's Final Examination for Students in Training Colleges.
(G)=The Board's Certificate Examination for Teachers in Elementary Schools.

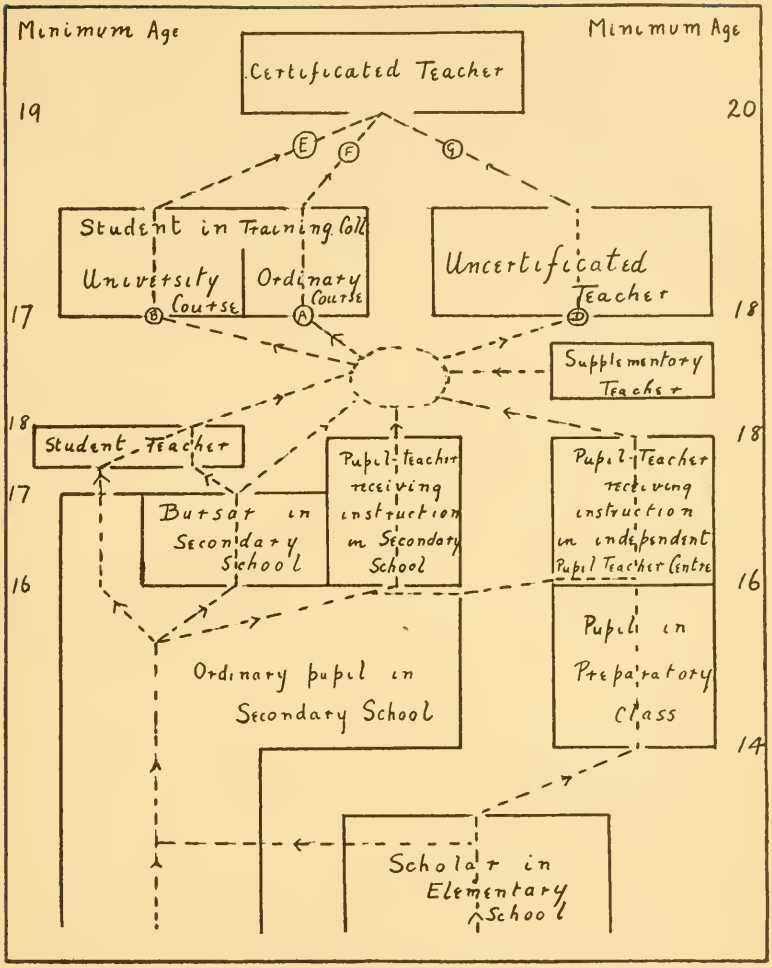

DIAGRAM FOR APPENDIX B

APPENDIX C

Form of Undertaking for Resident Students

AN INDENTURE, made the .....day of.....19...., BETWEEN the Board of Education (hereinafter called "the Board") of the first part, the .....(hereinafter called "the College Authority") of the second part, and the persons whose names and addresses are set out in the Schedule hereto (hereinafter called "the Students") each for *himself* (*herself*) of the third part:—

Whereas, each of the Students is desirous of adopting and following the profession of Teacher in an Approved School;

And Whereas, each of the Students has made application to the College authority for admission to the.....Training College (hereinafter called "the College") with a view to being there maintained, educated and trained for the profession of Teacher as a Resident Student;

And Whereas, fees are to be charged by the College Authority to each of the Students in respect of maintenance, education and training, but those fees form but a small part of the cost which will be incurred by the College Authority in respect of the maintenance, education and training of any student;

And Whereas, under the regulations for the training of Teachers for Elementary Schools (hereinafter called "the Regulations"), issued by the Board, Grants are payable annually in respect of the maintenance, education and training of every Student in a Training College who is recognized by the Board and who has on admission to that College given an undertaking to the Board for the purpose of securing that in return for the said Grants the Student shall complete *his* (*her*) training at that College and thereafter actually follow the profession of Teacher in an Approved School for such period or periods or repay to the Board such proportion of the said Grants as may respectively be specified in the undertaking;

And Whereas, the College Authority are willing to admit each of the Students to the College and there to maintain, educate and train *him* (*her*) with a view to *his* (*her*) becoming a Certificated Teacher in accordance with the Regulations, provided that grants become payable to the College Authority as aforesaid in respect of *his* (*her*) maintenance, education and training;

And Whereas, in order to make the said Grants become payable, and to secure *his* (*her*) admission as aforesaid, each of the Students has agreed to give the undertaking hereinafter contained:

NOW THIS INDENTURE WITNESSETH AS FOLLOWS:—

1. Each of the Students, in consideration of the Grants in respect of *his* (*her*) maintenance, education and training, undertakes to the Board that *he* (*she*) will complete, in the College a course of training for the approved period(that is to say, the period for which *he* (*she*) is admitted or any other period which may be substituted for that period in accordance with the Regulations), and will upon completion of the course of training follow the profession of Teacher in an Approved School and complete not less than *seven* (*five*) years' service in that profession within the period of obligation (that is to say, within *ten* (*eight*) years of the first day of August next after the completion of *his* (*her*) course of training), or make repayment as hereinafter specified.

2. If a Student, before the completion of *his* (*her*) course of training leaves or is with the approval of the Board expelled from the College, *he* (*she*) will repay to the Board an amount equal to the Grants paid by the Board in respect of the maintenance, education and training which *he* (*she*) receives up to the date which *he* (*she*) so leaves or is expelled.

3. Each Student will, on every thirty-first day of July, during the period of obligation, furnish to the Board such evidence as the Board may prescribe with respect to *his* (*her*) occupation during that period.

4. If on the thirty-first day of July in any year within the period of obligation the periods in respect of which a Student has failed to show to the satisfaction of the Board that *he* (*she*) has served as a Teacher in an Approved School amount in the aggregate to more than three years, the Student shall on or before the thirty-first day of December then next following pay to the Board a proportion of the aggregate amount of the Grants paid by the Board in respect of *his* (*her*) maintenance, education and training, calculated in accordance with the provisions of this Indenture, in respect of the period of default (that is to say, the time by which the period during which *he* (*she*) has so failed exceeds three years).

5. The sum to be so paid on or before any and every such thirty-first day of December shall bear the same proportion to the aggregate amount of the Grants so paid that the period of default bears to *seven* (*five*) years:

Provided that:—

(*a*) In calculating the amount of a second or subsequent payment, any amount previously paid by the Student shall be deducted from the amount to be paid by *him* (*her*):

(*b*) In calculating the period of default for the purposes of this Indenture, an allowance shall be made to the Student on account of the time occupied in school holidays in respect of each twelve months commencing on each first day of August, equivalent, where the Student has been in continuous employment for that twelve months, to the time actually occupied in school holidays, and, where the Student has not been in such continuous employment, to such a time as the Board, having regard to the period ordinarily so occupied and to all the circumstances of the case, may think just;

(*c*) If it is shown to the satisfaction of the Board that any such failure as aforesaid has been caused by illness, by inability (not due to the Student's own default) to find employment at the current rate of salary payable to teachers of the same grade and sex, or by any other cause which, in the opinion of the Board, was not due to the default of the Student, the period during which the failure so caused continues shall not be taken into account in calculating the period of default.

6. The College Authority undertake to admit each of the Students to the College and there during the approved period (exclusive of ordinary holidays or any period of suspension from attendance at the College) to maintain, educate and train *him* (*her*) with a view to *his* (*her*) becoming a Certificated Teacher, unless and until *he* (*she*) leaves or is with the approval of the Board expelled from the College.

7. The Board recognize each of the Students for admission to the College, and will from time to time pay to the person or persons to whom Grants are payable under the Regulations in respect of the maintenance, education and training of the Students such sums as are payable in respect of each of the Students in accordance with the Regulations.

8. Any breach by the Board or by the College Authority of any provision of this indenture as respects any Student shall not operate to release any other Student from the obligations undertaken by *him* (*her*) under this Indenture.

9. In this Indenture the expression "Approved School" includes any Public Elementary School, and any School certified under the Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children) Act, 1893, or under the Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic Children) Act, 1899, and any Poor Law School, Certified Industrial School, Day

Industrial, or Certified Reformatory School, in England or Wales, and any Army or Navy School, and any Secondary School, Pupil-Teacher Centre, or Training College, in respect of which Grants are paid by the Board out of moneys provided by Parliament, and any other School which in the case of any Student the Board approve in writing for the purposes of this Indenture.

In Witness Whereof the Board and the College Authority have hereunto set their respective seals and the parties hereto of the third part have hereunto set their respective hands and seals the day and year first above written.

Schedule Above Referred To

The Students

(*Names and Addresses*)

Signed, sealed and delivered by the persons whose names are set out in the Schedule hereto in the presence of } (*Signatures and Seals of Students.*)

Sealed by Order of the Board of Education. } (*Seal of Board.*)

Sealed with the Common Seal of the ..... in the presence of } (*Seal of College Authority.*)

APPENDIX D

Annuity Tables

Tables showing the Amount of Annuity, payable quarterly, from the attainment of the Age of 65 Years, in return for a Contribution made by or on behalf of a Teacher of the Age undermentioned.

Men

Age at which a Contribution is treated as having been paid	Amount of Annuity for a Contribution of £3 5s 0d			
	£	s.	d.	Dollars
20 and not exceeding 21	1	13	8	8.18
21 " " 22	1	12	9	7.96
22 " " 23	1	11	9	7.71
23 " " 24	1	10	10	7.49
24 " " 25	1	9	11	7.27
25 " " 26	1	9	..	7.05
26 " " 27	1	8	1	6.82
27 " " 28	1	7	3	6.62
28 " " 29	1	6	5	6.42
29 " " 30	1	5	7	6.21
30 " " 31	1	4	9	6.01
31 " " 32	1	3	11	5.81
32 " " 33	1	3	2	5.63
33 " " 34	1	2	5	5.45
34 " " 35	1	1	8	5.26
35 " " 36	1	..	11	5.18
36 " " 37	1	..	3	4.92
37 " " 38	..	19	6	4.74
38 " " 39	..	18	10	4.57
39 " " 40	..	18	2	4.41
40 " " 41	..	17	6	4.25
41 " " 42	..	16	11	4.11
42 " " 43	..	16	3	3.96
43 " " 44	..	15	8	3.80
44 " " 45	..	15	1	3.66
45 " " 46	..	14	6	3.52
46 " " 47	..	13	11	3.38
47 " " 48	..	13	5	3.26
48 " " 49	..	12	10	3.12
49 " " 50	..	12	4	3.00
50 " " 51	..	11	10	2.87
51 " " 52	..	11	1	2.75
52 " " 53	..	10	10	2.63
53 " " 54	..	10	5	2.53
54 " " 55	..	9	11	2.41
55 " " 56	..	9	6	2.31
56 " " 57	..	9	1	2.21
57 " " 58	..	8	8	2.10
58 " " 59	..	8	3	2.00
59 " " 60	..	7	10	1.90
60 " " 61	..	7	6	1.82
61 " " 62	..	7	2	1.74
62 " " 63	..	6	9	1.64
63 " " 64	..	6	5	1.56
64 " " 65	..	6	1	1.48

Women

Age at which a Contribution is treated as having been paid	Amount of Annuity for a Contribution of £2 8s 0d			
	£	s.	d.	Dollars
20 and not exceeding 21	..	15	9	3.82
21 " " 22	..	15	4	3.72
22 " " 23	..	14	11	3.62
23 " " 24	..	14	6	3.52
24 " " 25	..	14	1	3.42
25 " " 26	..	13	9	3.34
26 " " 27	..	13	4	3.24
27 " " 28	..	13	..	3.16
28 " " 29	..	12	7	3.06
29 " " 30	..	12	3	2.98
30 " " 31	..	11	11	2.89
31 " " 32	..	11	7	2.81
32 " " 33	..	11	3	2.73
33 " " 34	..	10	11	2.65
34 " " 35	..	10	7	2.57
35 " " 36	..	10	3	2.49
36 " " 37	..	10	..	2.43
37 " " 38	..	9	8	2.35
38 " " 39	..	9	5	2.29
39 " " 40	..	9	1	2.21
40 " " 41	..	8	10	2.14
41 " " 42	..	8	7	2.08
42 " " 43	..	8	4	2.02
43 " " 44	..	8	..	1.94
44 " " 45	..	7	9	1.88
45 " " 46	..	7	7	1.84
46 " " 47	..	7	4	1.78
47 " " 48	..	7	1	1.72
48 " " 49	..	6	10	1.66
49 " " 50	..	6	7	1.60
50 " " 51	..	6	5	1.56
51 " " 52	..	6	2	1.50
52 " " 53	..	6	..	1.46
53 " " 54	..	5	9	1.39
54 " " 55	..	5	7	1.35
55 " " 56	..	5	4	1.29
56 " " 57	..	5	2	1.25
57 " " 58	..	4	11	1.19
58 " " 59	..	4	9	1.15
59 " " 60	..	4	7	1.11
60 " " 61	..	4	4	1.05
61 " " 62	..	4	2	1.01
62 " " 63	..	4	..	.97
63 " " 64	..	3	10	.93
64 " " 65	..	3	7	.87

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